TANTRA IN BENGAL

A Study in its Origin, Development and Influence

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S.C. Banerji



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PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

Bengal (both West Bengal and Bangladesh taken together) may or may not have been the original home of Tantras, as believed by some scholars. The fact, however, remains that in this region, many Tantras, Hindu and Buddhistic, were written. Tantra permeated the soil of Bengal; it became the warp and woof of the cultural fabric of this province. It influenced the life and literature of the Bengalis very intimately. Its appeal to the mass was so great and pervasive that many folk-songs contained Täntric elements. Mother Kālī, introduced by Tāntra, is a household word in Bengal.

Aspects of Bengal Tantra have been studied. But, there is not a single book which gives a connected account of its origin, development and impact on Bengali culture. It is to remove this want that the present work has been planned.

We have studied this literature against the social and religious background.

While prolixity has been avoided, care has been taken to see that no important information on the subject is left out.

We have tried to examine the extent to which Bengal Tantra breaks away from the orthodox Brāhmanical religion, but puts judicious curbs on self-indulgence that disfigures many Tāntric rites, and appears to be indecent to cultured people.

Of the appendices, one gives a list of Bengal Tantras hitherto unpublished. In fact, these outnumber the published ones. In one appendix we have collected the names of authors and works, cited in Bengal Tantra. This will show the range and variety of the literature utilised in it.

One may miss insights in this work, into the high philosophy of Tantra as provided by Woodroffe. The author's main object is to give a connected and sustained account of the origin, development and influence of Bengal Tantra. Nevertheless, philosophy of Bengal Tantra has been set forth in chapter IX. The philosophy of Tantra in general has been outlined briefly in chapter I. One may find the author's permissiveness of the Vāma Mārga a little excessive. Bhāsa, a renowned pre-Kālīdāsa dramatist, approved the way of the Tāntric devotees. Thus, there was, even in remote antiquity, a marked tendency of approbation of Vāmācāra in Tantras. So, our treatment of it does not amount to special pleading for this Tāntric way.



In two appendices, we have set forth the Bengal works, particularly on Smrti and Vaisnavism, citing Tantras. This will show the extent to which Tantra in general and Bengal Tantra in particular influenced the Bengali culture even in medieval times.

S.C. Banerji

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

It is heartening to note that the first edition of this work has been sold out in course of a few years.

The scope of this work has been set forth in the Preface to the first edition. Considerable new information regarding some Tantric texts of Bengal and the influence of Tantra on the cultural life of this province has been incorporated in the new edition. The Glossary and Bibliography have been supplemented.

As regards abbreviations used in the Notes, we do not give a list; because, all these have been explained under Select Bibliography.

The labours of the author will be amply repaid if this work can apprise the readers of the history of Tantra in Bengal, and of the pervasive influence of this Śāstra on the life and literature of this province.

S.C. Banerji 77A, Golf Club Road, Calcutta-33

New Year's Day, 1398 B.S.



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I. Tantra: General Remarks

Meaning of 'Tantra'

Various meanings of the term have been suggested:

- (i) Essence of a thing (Satapatha Brahmana).
- (ii) A special set of doctrines, practices, mystic syllables, occultism, etc.
- (iii) Derived from root tan, it means that which spreads or extends knowledge.
- (iv) Derived from the above root, it means a Śāstra which dilates upon Tattvas and Mantras.
- (v) Derived from tanu (body), it is so called as it saves the body by yogic practices.
- (vi) Derived from root trai (to save), it means a Śāstra which saves its followers.
- (vii) Derived by some from root tantri (to explain) or tatri (to understand) $\overline{A}gama$ is divided into three classes—Tantra, Yāmala and \overline{D} āmara. These are called respectively Sāttvika, Rājasika and Tāmasika.

In another way, Tantras have been divided into five Amnāyas. According to some Tantras (e.g. Śaktisaṃgama), Amnāyas are six. The word 'Amnāya' may be taken to denote a zone of culture.

Again, Tantras are divided into four regional schools, viz. Kerala, Kāśmīra, Gauḍa and Vilāsa. Those of the last class are stated to be current everywhere in India.

According to the *Brahmayāmala*, in accordance with *srota* (current of thought?) Tantras are divided into three classes, viz. *Dakṣiṇa* (with *Sattvaguṇa* as dominant), *Vāma* (with preponderance of *Rajas*) and *Madhyama* (with *Tamas* as dominant).

According to H.P.Sastri 'Tantra' means shortening; it seeks to shorten mantras which would otherwise be very long.

Classification of Tantra

Tantra is often used to denote the three classes of works, viz. Samhitā, Āgama and Tantra of the Vaiṣṇavas, Śaivas and Śāktas respectively. Samhitā, Āgama and Tantra mean respectively collection, tradition and a set of doctrines or a book. The terms do not divide the



three into watertight compartments. For example the Vaiṣṇava *Padma-saṃhitā* is also called *Padma-tantra*. Again, *Pañcarātra-āgama*, which is a Saivite work, is referred to as *Pañcarātra-samhitā*.

Tantric works are also classified as \overline{Agama} and Nigama. Generally, the contents of these works are represented as dialogues between Siva and Parvati. Those works, in the form of Parvati's questions and Siva's answers are designated as \overline{Agama} . Nigama indicates those works in which this process is reversed.

According to a Tantra, India has been broadly divided into three well-marked regions, 1 viz.,

- (i) Vişnukranta: from the Vindhya hill up to Java in the Far East.
- (ii) Rathakrānta: from the above hill to the north comprising Nepal and Mahācīna.
- (iii) Aśvakrānta or Gajakrānta: from that hill to the west including Persia, Egypt and Rhodesia. In a later edition of the work, it includes the land from the above hill up to Kanyākumārī in the south.

The extent and boundaries of these regions are controversial. According to their origin in the above places, the Tantras are divided into three classes; there is difference of opinion about the places of origin of the particular works. Sixty-four Tantras are believed to belong to each of these classes.²

Tantras are popularly divided into two categories, viz. Sadagama and Asadagama i.e. good and bad $\overline{A}gamas$. There is a controversy about which of the works are sat and which asat; generally the work, in which the worship accords with practice or custom is sat; the reverse is asat.

Tantras are also divided as $\bar{a}stika$ or Vedic and $n\bar{a}stika$ or non-Vedic. In accordance with the predominance of the deity the $\bar{A}stika$ works are again divided as $\bar{S}\bar{a}kta$, $\bar{S}aiva$, $\bar{S}aiva$, $\bar{G}anapatya$ and $\bar{V}aisnava$. The $\bar{S}\bar{a}kta$ Tantras are divided into ten classes according to the names of ten Mahāvidyās. Of these, the $\bar{S}odastantra$ is known as $\bar{S}rividy\bar{a}$.

Srotas, Pitha and Amnāya are three other classes into which the Tantra literature is divided.³

Tantras are further divided as Hindu and non-Hindu. The non-Hindu works are those of the Buddhists⁴ and the Jainas. Both these belong to the above Nästika class.

A classification of Tantras is based on the mythological ages, e.g. Varāhakalpa, Kālakalpa, etc. A further classification is made in accor-



dance with their origin from the different mouths (and their different positions) of Siva.

Another mode of classification is into Kālīkula and Śrīkula. The former attaches the greatest importance to the cult of Kālī. To this school belong the Mahākālasamhitā, Jayad-ratha-samhita, Uttaratantra, Śaktisamgama-tantra (Kālīkhaṇḍa). The followers of this school are purely monist. According to them, Śakti and Brahman are identical; Śiva-Śakti is beyond dualism.

According to the latter, Siva is both the efficient and material cause of the world. The atomic elements, with which the individual souls and the material world are composed, are produced by His Sakti. The followers of this school look upon Sakti as *Vimarśinī* or Siva's natural vibrating power. Thus, they have a leaning towards the Viśiṣtādvaita view of Rāmānuja.

A further division of Tantra is into Kādimata or Kālīmata, Hādimata and Kahādimata, mentioned in the Śaktisaṃgama Tantra. In the first school, the theoretical doctrines use the letter KA as their symbol. It was popular in Gauda region or Bengal (Śaktisaṃgama, Tārākhaṇḍa, Lviii. 81-82, Kālīkhaṇḍa, V.24-26).

The second school is so called as it uses HA as the symbol of Siva (Ibid, Tara, Lviii. 81).

The third school is also called Tāriņīmata.

It is stated that, according to Kādimata, Mahāšakti is called Tripurā in Kerala, Tāriņī in Kashmir and Kālī in Gauda. According to Hādimata, She is called Kāli in Kerala, Tripurā in Kashmir and Tārā in Gauda.

Tantras-Raison d'etre

The question that naturally arises is—what are the causes that led to the composition of these works when so many Brahmanical Śāstras existed? The Vedas and the works which followed them were too abstruse for the common people. The Brahmanical philosophical systems were too recondite for them. The ritualistic works provided for rites and rituals which were too elaborate, and required rigorous discipline and meticulous performance of details. The result was that they failed to satisfy the cravings of the people preoccupied with various worldly matters. The Brahmanical works denied the personal right of important religious performances to Śūdras, particularly to women not only of the Śūdra caste but also of the higher castes.



Thus the need was gradually felt for easier works inculcating doctrines more intelligible to the common man, prescribing less complicated practices and giving freedom of religious performances to Śūdras and women. The result was the formulation of Tantras. These are not deliberately hostile to the Veda, but hold that the precepts and practices, contained in the Veda, are too difficult for our age. In rendering religious practices easier, the Tantras allow a person to follow his natural inclination, e.g. drinking of wine, enjoyment of women etc. The human body has been regarded by these works as a microcosm; these seek to inculcate the belief that whatsoever is in the universe is in the body itself. In other words, what is not in the body does not exist in the universe.5 These works lay stress on utilising the body as the best means of sadhana. According to them, the body contains the highest power which, if properly utilised, can lead the sādhaka to the highest goal; it can enable him to control the universal energy.6 This Sakti. called Kulakundalini, is realised by the Sādhaka as a serpent coiling in the middle part of the body.

The authors of Tantras may have been prompted to compose these works by a desire to attract the common folk when the latter were embracing the popular religion of Buddhism. The common man was naturally prone to sexual intercourse, fond of wine, meat, etc. So, they were allowed the use of pañca makāras and were told that thus they could attain liberation.

Subject-matter of Tantras

The Vārāhi-tantra sets forth the contents of the different classes of Tantric works as follows:

Āgama: sṛṣṭi, pralaya, devapūjā, sādhana, purascaraṇa, ṣaṭkarma, (māraṇa,uccāṭana, stambhana, vasikaraṇa, vidveṣaṇa, sānti).

Yāmala: sṛṣṭi, jyotiṣa, ākhyāna, nityakarma, kramasūtra, varṇabheda, jātibheda, yugadharma.

Tantra: sṛṣṭi, pratisṛṣṭi, tantra-nirṇaya, devatākṛti, tīrtha, āśrama, Brāhmaṇa, prāṇilakṣaṇa, yantra, devotpatti, kalpavṛkṣa, jyotiṣa, purāṇākhāyna, kośa, vrata, śaucāśauca, naraka, haracakra, strīpuruṣalakṣaṇa, rājadharma, dānadharma, yugadharma, vyavahāravidhi, adhyātma-varṇanā, etc.

The subject-matter of a complete Tantric work may be broadly divided as follows:





- 1. Jāāna: knowledge including philosophical and metaphysical doctrines with a monotheistic tendency and sometimes a monistic bias. It contains occultism including a knowledge of the mystic powers of letters, syllables, formulae and figures.
- 2.Yoga: means of controlling the mind, especially for acquiring magic powers.
- 3. Kriyā: containing instructions for making idols and constructing and consecrating temples.
- 4. Caryā: rules about rites, festivals and social duties. The contents of each of the Tantric works cannot be clearly divided into the above classes. These four represent a broad spectrum of the subject-matter of the works of these classes. Regarding worship, Tantra recognises three aspects of the deity worshipped by a devotee, viz. sthūla (image), sūkṣma (mantra) and parā (highest, to be realised by the mind alone).

Broadly speaking, the Tantra literature has two-aspects: one philosophical and spiritual, and the other popular and practical. The latter contains magic, mantra, mudrā, maṇḍala, nyāsa, cakra, yantra, etc. Tantra aims at two things, viz. liberation and Siddhis (power).

The features, distinguishing Tantras from other religious works in Sanskrit, are briefly as follows:

The assurance of the acquisition of superhuman powers, the realisation of the Supreme Principle within a brief period, emphasis on the worship of the goddess with makāras alone as ensuring the desired result, peculiar rites with mantras, bījas (apparently meaningless mystic syllables), nyāsas, mudrās, cakras, yantras and such other things. The basic difference between orthodox religious works and Tantras is that, while the former emphasise renunciation (tyāga), the latter allow enjoyment (bhoga) as means to the end.

Internal Components of Human Body

Kośas: The body, regarded as a microcosm⁷, is believed to have the following within it:

The body consists of five Kośas or sheaths. These are: (i) annamaya — made of food, (ii) prāṇamaya — consisting of vital breath, (iii) manomaya — made of mind, (iv) Vjāānamaya — consisting of special consciousness, (v) ānandamaya — consisting of joy.

Nādis

According to some Tantras, the human body contains three crores and a half, according to others, 72,000 nadis (veins and arteries). Of

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these, fourteen are the principal ones. Of these fourteen again, the most prominent are Idā, Pingalā and Suṣumṇā. The last, the longest one, extends from the mūlādhāra, stated below, up to Brahmarandhra in the head. Also called brahmanādī or mokṣamārga, it is believed to contain the universe. Through it Kuṇḍalinī is supposed to move upward. Idā is on the left side of the spinal cord, entwining Suṣumṇā. Its exit is through the left nostril. A symbol of the moon, it is white, and represents the Amṛta aspect of Śakti. Pingalā is on the right side of the spinal cord. Rising from Mūlādhāra, its exit is through the right nostril. Also called Sūrya Nādī, it symbolises the waking condition and leads to violence.

Six Cakras

The body is supposed to contain six cakras (circles, nerve-plexus) in it.

These are:

- (1) Mūlādhāra: Just in the middle of the body. It is triangular in shape with its apex facing downward. It is like a red lotus with four petals. Kundalinī is supposed to coil around it.
- (2) Svādhiṣṭhāna: above the mūlādhāra, but below the navel. It is like a lotus of six petals.
- (3) Manipūra: in the navel. Also called Nābhicakra, it is like a golden lotus of ten petals, containing a letter. It is supposed to contain a triangle of the colour of the rising sun. The outer sides of the triangle are represented by three Svastika signs.
- (4) Anāhata: in the region of the heart. Like a deep red lotus of twelve petals; it is the seat of air.
- (5) Visuddha or Bhāratī: in the throat. Seat of Sarasvatī, it is grey and like a lotus of sixteen petals.
- (6) $\overline{A}j\bar{n}\bar{a}$: in between the eyebrows. Also called *paramakula* or *muktatriveņī*, it is like a lotus of two petals, white in colour. It is from here that the three $n\bar{a}dis$, $Id\bar{a}$ etc., spread out to different directions. It is the seat of mind. $Aj\bar{n}\bar{a}$ means order; order of *guru* is supposed to reside in it.

Cakra-bheda or Ṣaṭcakrabheda is frequently found in Tantras. Bheda means manifestation or activation; it is necessary for keeping the body fit and the attainment of siddhis.

The six cakras are identified in some Tantric works (e.g. Saundaryalahari, v.9) with the five elements and the mind.





The names and number of Cakras differ in different works. A Śrī cakra is often mentioned. The Cakrabheda-tantra (Deccan College Ms. no.962 of 1884-87) mentions the following five Cakras used in Durgāpūjā according to Kaulagama: Rāja, Mahā, Deva, Vīra, Paśu (See Catalogue, Vol. xvi on Tantra, p.163). In another Ms. (Ibid no. 964 of 1887-91) some other Cakras are described as Akaḍamacakra. These are Rnadhana, Śodhana, Rāśi, Nakṣatra (Catalogue, Vol. xvi on Tantra, p. 251). The Śrīcakra above, connected with Śrīvidyā, is also called Śrīyantra or Tripuracakra.

Sahasrāra-Padma

The Brahmarandhra, supposed to be at the centre of the head, through which vital breath or life is supposed to exit at death, is fancied to contain a multicoloured lotus of thousand petals (Sahasrāra-padma) and to face downward.

HUMAN NATURE

Human nature has been divided into three classes according to the qualities of Sattva, Rajas and Tamas. It is due to the diversity of human nature that the necessity for a guru arises for initiation; the guru initiates the disciple with the particular mantra suitable to the nature of the latter. On the basis of these qualities, human propensities have been divided into three classes, viz. paśubhāva, vīrabhāva and divyabhāva. A person, with the predominance of paśubhāva, is tied with the bonds of kindness, infatuation, fear, shame, hatred, family, conduct, caste, etc. Among such people, there is an excess of the quality of Rajas over Tamas. Among them, there is forgetfulness, idleness and drowsiness. They lack faith in mantras and guru; they observe Vedic practices. The Tantras dub such people as worst.

Due to the excess of Rajas, those who have vīrabhāva do such acts as breed sorrow.

Those, who have divyabhāva, have an excess of Sattva. Such people have been characterised as best. They are kind, pious, pure, truthful, and have an even attitude towards friends and foes.

There is difference of opinion about the type of people who are greater in number in Kali Age. According to the Mahānirvāṇa-tantra (i. 24), people of vīrabhāva are of a greater number than the other two types. A verse, quoted in the Prāṇatoṣiṇī, holds that, in this Age, there is none having divya or vīrabhāva. In spite of differences of opinion, there is a consensus that people of divyabhāva are rare.

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Sādhanā—Pañcatattva

 $S\overline{a}dhan\overline{a}$ (worship, propitiation) is the means of reaching the goal. There are many ways of $S\overline{a}dhan\overline{a}$, viz. $p\overline{u}j\overline{a}$ (external and mental), knowledge of $S\overline{a}stras$, japa (muttering or repeating a mantra or the name of a deity) tapas (penance) and mantra (incantation), etc.

Sādhakas and Sādhikās are divided into the following classes according to their physical, mental and moral qualities: (1) Mrdu, (2) Madhyama, (3) Adhimātraka, and (4) Adhimātrama. According to the Kaula school of Tantra, the sādhakas are of the following classes:

- (i) Prakṛti Vīrācārins: engaged in sacrifice and other rituals and resorting to pañcatattvas.
- (ii) Madhyama Kaulika: Like Prakṛti, but their minds are more attracted to meditation, knowledge and concentration.
- (iii) Kaulikottama: those who go beyond ritualism, and meditate on the Supreme Being.

In the Tantric way of worship, pañca-tattvas or five makāras play an important role. These five are madya (wine), mamsa (meat), matsya (fish), mudra¹⁰ and maithuna (sexual intercourse). The Sadhaka of Vira type will enjoy these things in their literal sense, and proceed along the path of Sadhana. Those of the pasu class will take coconut-water or milk, etc. instead of madya, red radish, red sesamum, the kind of pulse called masura in place of fish, ginger, sesamum, salt or garlic for meat; mudrā in their case will denote rice, barley, etc. Instead of maithuna, he will surrender himself, like a child, to the feet of Sakti. To the sādhaka of deva type, madya means maddening realisation of the Supreme Being, obtained by Yoga, by which he becomes unconscious of the external world. For him māmsa means that action by which he dedicates all acts to himself identified with Brahman. In his case, matsya menas Sāttvika knowledge by which he identifies himself with all beings, and himself shares their feelings of pleasure and pain. For him mudra means the giving up of association with all evil things which cause bondage. Such a sādhaka means, by maithuna, the union of the Kundalini energy, with the thousand-petalled cakra at the centre of the head.

The Kulārṇava-tantra gives the following explanation of pañcatattvas. Madya is the nectar flowing from the union of Kuṇḍalinī Śakti with Śiva in the sahasrāra in the head. He is an eater of māṃsa (flesh) who kills, with the sword of knowledge, the animals of merit and demerit and leads his mind to Supreme Śiva. He eats fish who con-



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trols his senses, and places them in his Atman. Maithuna means the union of Supreme Sakti and Atman; Sakti is aroused in a Kaulika, but not in a devotee of the paśu type. Maithuna symbolises the basic unity which underlies the apparent duality of everything.

Some people bitterly criticise Tantras for their advocating the pañcatattvas. But, a closer look at the philosophy of Tantras will reveal that they do not encourage immoral practices among the adherents by allowing them to satisfy their animal instincts. These are prescribed as preya (favourite articles) leading to the śreya (well being); these are means to an end, but not the end itself. The enjoyment of these things, for which there is natural inclination, is supposed to help the sādhaka in the realisation of Brahman, full of bliss. A Sādhaka is not allowed to indulge in these enjoyments as he likes. After reaching a very high stage of spiritual life, he can take to pañcatattva under the vigilant guidance of the guru. As a safeguard against levity, alternative articles have been prescribed for those with the preponderance of animal propensities and, as such, lacking in requisite restraint. This sādhana is commended for the sādhakas of vīra type, possessed of self-control.

For progress along the path of $s\bar{a}dhana$, one requires preparation of the body, vital breath and mind. The body is made fit by different postures $(\bar{a}sana)$. For preparing the vital breath, one has to practise $pr\bar{a}n\bar{a}y\bar{a}ma$. The mind has to be prepared by $bh\bar{a}v\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ (contemplation).

Three stages of sadhana are Suddhi, Sthiti and Arpana. At first, the sadhaka will have to be pure after removing physical and mental impurities. In the second stage, he will be free from the darkness of delusion and the light of knowledge will dawn on him. In the third and final stage, he will realise identity with the object of meditation.

 $Sn\overline{a}na$, tarpaṇa, $sandhy\overline{a}$, $p\overline{u}j\overline{a}$ and homa — these five are musts for the $s\overline{a}dhaka$.

Kundalini-yoga11

The fundamental concept of Tantric sādhana is Kunḍalinī-yoga. The dormant spiritual energy within the human body is called Kunḍalinī, conceived as a serpent coiling round the $m\bar{u}l\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ra$. It is also realised by the $S\bar{a}dhaka$ as lustrous like a crore of suns and cool like a crore of moons. By rousing this energy, a person can reach the higher state of human existence. When it is roused, the entire being of a person is flooded with very delicate nectar of music; this music is called the $K\bar{u}jana$ (singing) of $Kundalin\bar{i}$.



Besides the individual Kundalini, the Tantras speak of a Mahākundalini. The former develops the personal existence. While admitting the relationship of spiritual life with the divine, Tantra says that if a sādhaka can get upon Mahākundalini, then, by transcending the narrow personal state, he can be established in the wide universal state; Mahākundalini is at the root of the universe.

Pūja

Tantras ordain that the worshipper must identify himself with the deity he worships. ¹³ An essential element of $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is $ny\bar{a}sa$. ¹⁴ The offerings in a $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ may be five to eighteen in number. Dhyāna and japa are other requisites in $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$. Tantra, however, lays the greatest emphasis on mental worship $(m\bar{a}nasa-p\bar{u}j\bar{a})$. ¹⁵ In fact, this $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is regarded as far superior to external $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$. Some Tantras assert that, without $m\bar{a}nasa$ $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, external $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is futile. The Śāktānanda-taraṅgini¹⁶ holds that the search for god outside, having disregarded god within one's ownself, is like the quest of glass after ignoring the kaustubha jewel within one's own hand. Self-surrender (ātma-samarpaṇa) is a characteristic of Tāntric $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$. For example, the Kramadīpikā ordains.

gandhādibhiḥ saparivāram athārghyamasmai dattvā vidhāya kusumāñjalim ādareṇa/ stutvā praṇamya śirasā culukodakena svātmānam arpayatu taccaranāravinde//

Then having given offering to Him, along with His family, with sandal-paste, etc., having lovingly given a handful of flowers, eulogised them and saluted Him with the head, offer yourself to His lotus-feet with a *culuka* of water. (*Culuka* means hollowed palm).

Siddhi

Siddhi, to be achieved through sādhanā, may be mantrasiddhi (success in mantras) by which mantras, used by a sādhaka, produce the desired result; vāksiddhi (success in speech) by which words, uttered by a Sādhaka, become infallible. After reaching the summit of spiritual life, one can possess the following eight siddhis: animā (power of assuming a figure of atomic size), mahimā (power of increasing size at will), laghimā (power of assuming excessive lightness), garimā (power of assuming excessive heaviness), prāpti (power of obtaining anything at will), prākāmya (irresistible will), išitva (superiority over others), vašitva (power of keeping others under control).



There are other lesser *siddhis* too. The greatest *siddhi* is *Mahānirvāṇa* or *mokṣa*; it is, indeed, the highest object to be aimed at in life.

Mantra and Purascarana

Mantra occupies a very high place in Tantra. God is conceived as mantra which again has been mentioned as the surest means of attaining mokṣa. Mananāt trāyate it mantraḥ — that which saves through contemplation is mantra. The Pingalātantra, quoted in the Śaradātilaka, says-

mananam viśva-vijñānam trāṇam saṃsāra-bandhanāt/ yataḥ karoti-saṃsiddham mantra ityucyate tataḥ//

Mantra is so called as it saves one who has reached *siddhi* from the bondage of rebirth through *manana* which means the knowledge of the universe.

Tantras believe that the lifeless syllables of a mantra, being pronounced in contact with $Susumn\bar{a}$, acquire unlimited power. The power of mantras is manifold. In some mantras, will predominates, in others joy. In some, the creative power is predominant, while in others peace figures prominently

Mantras are constituted by the letters from A to Kṣa; these mantras are called bīja (seed). A bīja-mantra is obtained by the disciple from his preceptor at the time of initiation; it symbolises the form of the desired deity. Seed is sown on a soil which is cultivated, cleaned and watered. Similarly, the bīja-mantra is put into the disciple's heart which is pure, and has been drenched by the water of God's mercy.

The word *Purascarana* literally means performing before something. According to the *Vāyavīya-samhitā*, it means the perfecting of the procedure of *mūlamantra*, because it has to be performed before the acts in which it is to be employed. The *Kulārṇava* (XVII.87) states that it is so called, because, by this rite, the intended deity moves before the worshipper for granting favour to him.

Puraścarana of a mantra has the following constituents: dhyāna, pūjā, japa, homa, tarpana, abhiṣeka and brāhmāna-bhojana. In a shorter form, the first three only are performed. Daśānga puraścarana consists of the following three additional items: aghamarṣana, sūryārghya, jalpana (Kaulāvalī-nirṇaya, XV). Several Tantras incidentally deal with puraścarana: e.g. Kulārnava (XV. 7-9, 11-12),



Śāradātilaka, (11. 138-140), Śaktisamgama, Sundari, III. 155-156, etc. The Puraścaryārnava (VI) deserves special mention in this connexion.

There are different forms of this rite depending on the nature of the devotee concerned, Divya, Vira or Paśu.

In some texts, the body of God is called *Mantratanu*. *Mantrayāna* is the name of Tantric Buddhism.

As we have seen above, the bijas in Tantra are mystic syllables without any meaning. These are believed to have great potency and efficacy. It may be noted that many people of ancient times used to believe in the mystic power of letters or words, which might not have any sense. E.J. Thomas writes (History of Buddhist Thought, p. 186) that spells, similar to Hindu and Buddhist types, occur in Old English, Old High German and Keltic.

The letters of the alphabet are also called Mātrkās (sources). Mantras, being written in the letters, they are regarded as sacred.

Flesh and blood of the body are also called mantra (Rāghavabhaṭṭa on Śāradātilaka, v.95-96).

Some works (e.g. Prāṇatoṣiṇī IV.1.p.222, Gāndharva XXIX.24-25) provide for rites for rousing the consciousness of mantras.

Some Tantras (e.g. Tantrarāja XXXV.64-66, Purascaryārṇava VI, p. 526) require a devotee to realise that every letter of a mantra is the manifestation of the real nature of Śakti, and feel that he is merged in the essence of the object of his spiritual exercise.

The ten ways of purifying mantras are janana, jīvana, tādana, bodhana, abhişeka, vimalikaraṇa, āpyāyana, tarpaṇa, dīpana and gupta. (Kṛṣṇānanda's Tantrasāra).

One, who attains mantra-siddhi, acquires a peculiar brightness of the body and a lasting peaceful state of mind.

Mantra-sikhā is the name of a purificatory flame roused, within the body, during the upward march of Kundalinī (Purascayārnava, VI).

Rāghavabhaṭṭa on Śārdātilaka (ii.III) speaks of the purification of mantras with Prāṇāyāma according to the Yonimudrā process and reciting them for 1008 times.

The Kulārṇava (vi) prescribes the process of purifying a mantra by reciting its letters in the regular and reverse orders.

Yoga

Tantric Yoga is mainly twofold — hathayoga and samadhiyoga. The former consists in physical methods by which the way to mind-





control is paved. It has the following five external accessories instead of the eight, prescribed in the Yoga system of Patañjali.

- (i) Yama: control of the senses, non-violence, etc.
- (ii) Niyama: study of Śāstras, meditation on God.
- (iii) Prānāyāma: control of breath.
- (iv) Asana: a particular posture.
- (v) *Pratyāhāra*: withdrawal of the senses from worldly objects. *Samādhi-yoga*¹⁷ is sixfold;

Dhyāna-yoga, Nāda-yoga, Rasānanda-yoga, Layasiddhi-yoga, Bhakti-yoga and Rājayoga.

The basic difference between the yoga in the Yogasāstra of Patañjali and Tantric yoga is this. In the latter, there is no difference between Śakti and Tattva so that Śakti surmounts all obstacles, and effects the union of the yogin with the Supreme Śiva. But, Patañjali does not recognise any Supreme Power beyond Prakṛti so that the Yogin has no familiarity with any Śakti beyond Prakṛti.

Mandala, Mudrā, Yantra, Nyāsa

Mandalas or diagrams of various shapes and colours are regarded as indispensable for Tantric rites. The Jñanarnava (XXIV. 8-10, XXVI. 15-17), which describes several mandalas, holds that mandala and cakra mean the same thing. The Śāradātilaka (iii. 113-118, 131-139) and several other Tantras, both Hindu and Buddhist, describe some mandalas.

Some of the mandalas are Sarvatobhadra, Caturlingatobhadra, Prāsāda-vāstu-mandala, Grhavāstu-mandala, Harihara-mandala. Ekalingatobhadra, etc. According to the Śāradātilaka (iii-106-130), the Sarvatobhadra (auspicious on all sides) is common to all kinds of worship.

The word Mandala also denotes a gathering of Tantric devotees who assemble to perform rituals involving Pancamakāras. Some Tantras, e.g. Kaulāvalī-nirņaya (viii) and Mahānirvāņa (viii, 154-156) deal with such Mandalas.

The celebrated commentator, Räghavabhațța, derives the word mudrā (pose of hand or finger) as mudam rāti dadāti, that which gives delight.

The Kulārṇava, (xvii. 57) derives the word from root mud (to give delight) and drāvay (causative of dru, to melt); the word means that which gives delight to gods and melts their hearts.



It is one of the five Makaras regarded as essential for Tantric worship.

The names, number and description of *mudrās* differ in different works. The number ranges from nine to fifty-eight.

Some of the Tantras, dealing with mudrās, are the Śāradā-tilaka (xxiii. 106-114), Jfianāmava (iv. 31-47, 51-56, xv. 46-68, Jayākhya-samhitā (Paṭala 8), Kulāmava (xvii. 90-93) Kaulāvalī-nimava (vii. 5-14), Mahānirvāna (vi. 77).

Nine mudrās are common. According to the Śāradātilaka, there are Āvāhanī, Sthāpanī, Sannidhāpana, Sannirodhanī, Sammukhikaraṇī, Sakalikṛti, Avagunṭhana, Dhenu and Mahāmudrā.

Some other mudrās are Śamkha, Abhīti, Trikhandā, Khecarī, Yoni, etc.

The names of a few mudrās, mentioned in the Nityāsoḍasikā, indicate the purposes for which they were used, e.g. Sarvasamkṣobhakāriṇī, Sarvavidrāvaṇī, Ākarṣiṇī, Sarvavasakārī, Unmādinī.

Mudrā is an important subject in Buddhist Tantra also. The Aryamañjuśri-mūlakapa names and defines 108 mudrās.

The term *mudrā*, in some cases, appears to mean yogic posture of the body, e.g. *Khecari*, Yoni.

Theory of Creation — Siva and Sakti

The Supreme Brahman is eternal and immutable. He is at once niskala and sa-kala; 18 kala means Prakrti. The Śakti 19 of Brahman is eternal and inseparable from Him. This Sakti is nirguna (without attributes) and saguna (with attributes). In her aspect of goddess in the form of consciousness, she manifests the being, and through her as the goddess in the form of bliss (ananda) Brahman manifests Himself. 20 Sakti is immanent in universe like oil in sesamum. From Brahma-Sakti arises Nāda from which proceeds Bindu. By characterising the goddess as mūlamantrātmikā (constituted by the basic mantra) her subtle body is referred to Siva, wrapped in the web of Mava, and the latent Sakti is fancied as the supreme Bindu. This Bindu is circular, bounded by the circumference of Māyā. At its centre is the place of Brahman, the abode of Prakṛti-Purusa. This very Bindu is Prakṛti-Purusa; it is Śabda-Brahman or Apara-Brahman.²¹ From the union of Siva and Sakti, the goddess becomes inclined (unmukhi) to Siva. Then the web of Maya is rent asunder, and creation proceeds. The relationship of Siva and Sakti is controversial. On this, the following statement of the Kularnava-tantra may be noted:

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advaitam kecidicchanti dvaitamicchanti caparel mama tattvam na jānāti dvaitādvaita-vivarjitam// (i. 110)

'Some desire non-duality, while others want duality. Man knows not my actual state which is free from duality and non-duality.'

Sabda-Brahman manifests itself in three Saktis, viz. Jñāna (knowledge), Icchā (desire) and Kriyā (action). The goddess is described as icchāśakti-jñānaśakti-kriyāśakti-svarūpinī. The following terms are used to convey the completeness of Siva:

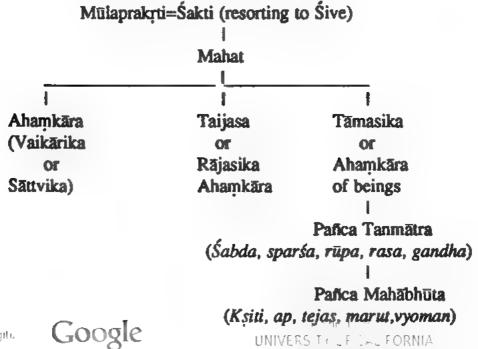
svatantratā (independnce), nityatā (eternality), nitya-trptatā (quality of being eternally contented), sarvajñatā (omniscience).

From Paramasiva arises Sambhu, from Sambhu Sadāsiva, from Sadāsiva Isāna and with their own Saktis arise Rudra, Visnu and Siva. Without these Saktis, Rudra, etc. have no power.²²

In the Mahanirvana-tantra, Siva has been addressed as Sambhu, Sadāśiva, Śamkara, Maheśvara, etc. All these are but names of the different conditions, qualities or manifestations of the single Siva.

Sakti is at once of the form of Maya and Mulaprakrti. Through the power of this $M\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, Brahman conceals His own form, and appears in different forms. Mūlaprakrti is unmanifested. In the manifest state, she resides in the universe consisting of various names and forms. Siva-Sakti dwell in the mūlādhāra and Kundalini within the human body. In all processes, Sabda-Brahman resides in the form of Kundalini, and is manifested as aksaras (letters).

The order of creation in Tantra is as follows:



Śakti is variously termed as Māyā, Mahāmāyā, Devī, Prakṛti, etc. She is both Vidyā and Avidyā. As Avidyā, she causes bondage, and as Vidyā she puts an end to rebirths, and gives liberation. She is called Ādyā Śakti (the primeval energy) as she is supposed to have existed before creation. As the manifestation of Cit in Prakṛti, she is called the Denoting Power (vācaka-śakti). Being in the form of Cit, she is also the Denoted Power (vācya-śakti). Ātman is to be conceived as Devī. So, Devī or Śakti is only a manifestation of Śiva in the form of mother. 23 It is She who is Ambikā and Lalitā.

As Parabrahma, Devī is beyond form and quality. She has been conceived in three ways; 1. supreme form; she is beyond knowledge.²⁴ 2. subtle body constituted by *mantra*; this formless aspect is beyond meditation. 3. the gross body which is easily comprehensible.²⁵

As Mahādevī, Śakti exists in different forms, e.g. Sarasvatī, Lakṣmī, Durgā, Annapūrṇā, etc. As Satī, Umā, Pārvatī, etc. She is the consort of Śiva. As Satī, she manifested herself before Śiva, prior to Dakṣayajña, as ten Mahāvidyās. When Satī renounced her body, Śiva carried the corpse. With his disc Viṣṇu cut the body to 51 pieces which dropped at different places which were called *Mahāpītḥasthānas*. At each of these places, Devī, along with her Bhairava, is worshipped.

Infinite are the forms of Śakti. She resides in all the animate and inanimate objects of the universe. But, in reality, she is one. As the single moon, reflected in the waves, appears to be many, so the single Śakti has various manifestations.

Sakti always resorts to Siva. Her first manifestation is with the emanation of the universe. Before this, Sakti in dormant in Siva. This dormancy or latent character of the existence of Parama Siva, in an attributeless state, is generally known as Sunya in Saiva Agamas Sunya in Saiva Agamas Sunya in Saiva Agamas Sunya in Su

Ten Mahāvidyās

In Tantra, Śakti is also called Vidyā or Mahāvidyā. The same Śakti has been conceived in ten aspects. Hence they are collectively called Das'a Mahāvidyā. The names vary in different works.

In Cāmuṇḍā and Muṇḍamālā-tantras, the names are as follows, Kālī, Tārā, Śoḍaśī, Bhuvaneśvari, Bhairavī, Chinnamastā, Dhūmāvatī, Vagalā, Mātaṅgī, Kamalā.



The Mālinīvijaya gives the following list: Kālī, Nīlā, Mahādurgā, Tvaritā, Chinnamastakā, Vāgvādinī, Annapūrņā, Pratyangirā, Kāmākhyā, Vāsalī, Bālā, Mātangī, Śaila vāsinī. It is curious that the number here is 13.

In some Tantras (e.g. Niruttara i-6-8), the Mahāvidyās are divided into two groups; those belonging to $K\bar{a}l\bar{i}kula$ and those belonging to $Sr\bar{i}kula$.

To the former belong Kālī, Tārā, Chinnamastā, Bhuvanā, Mahiṣamardinī, Tripuṭā, Tvaritā, Durgā, Vidyā and Pratyaṅgirā. To the latter belong Sundarī, Bhairavī, Bālā, Vagalā, Kamalā, Dhūmāvatī, Mātaṅgī, Svapnavatī, Madhumatī and Mahāvidyā. The total number is twenty.

Acarn

According to Tantra, there are sādhana and upāsana of different kinds. These varieties are seven according to some works, nine according to others. In the Kulārņava-tantra (Chap.ii) are mentioned the following ways:

i) Vedācāra, ii) Vaiṣṇavācāra, iii) Śaivācāra iv) Dakṣiṇācāra, v) Vāmācāra, vi) Siddhāntācāra, vii) Kaulācāra.

Each succeeding one is higher than the preceding way. In $Ved\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$, there is preponderance of Vedic rituals. In the second $\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$, the $s\bar{a}dhaka$ overcomes blind faith, and has unflinching faith in the saving power of Brahman. It is the way of devotion.

In the third one, there is entrance into the way of knowledge. In it, there is a combination of bhakti and sakti with faith in the mind of the sādhaka; the sādhaka endeavours to acquire sakti. In the fourth way, the sādhaka becomes capable of meditating upon the three Śaktis of kriyā, icchā and jñāna of Brahman, and acquires fitness for the worship of three, viz. Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Maheśvara. The fifth way is so called, according to some, because, in it, stress is laid on Vāmā (woman) as an essential element of Sādhana. Others, however, think that the word is Vāma (left) as distinguished from dakṣiṇa (right) in Dakṣiṇācāra. The sādhaka proceeds from pravṛtti (inclination) to nivṛtti (cessation of desire). Some take Vāmā to mean a crooked way resorted to secretly. In this ācāra, the sādhaka breaks the bonds of delusion, shame, etc. with which a person of paśubhāva is tied. The way to the attainment of Śivahood, found in this ācāra, is completed in the sixth. Now he gets the opportunity, with the help of guru, to reach Kaulācāra. The is



state, he becomes liberated in life (*jivanmukta*) and, acquiring the knowledge of Brahman, reaches the state of Paramahamsa; this, indeed, is the highest goal of Tantric Sādhana.

In some Tantric texts, \overline{Aca} are divided into two broad classes, Aghora and Yoga. The former is so called as it is followed by Aghorins, a sect of the Saivas.

Guru, Śiṣya-Dīkṣā, Abhiṣeka

Some Tantras (e.g. Nirvāṇatantra) mention four classes of gurus, viz. guru, paramaguru, parāparaguru and parameṣṭhi-guru. According to some works (e.g. Nilatantra V.73), Goddess Śakti is parāparaguru and Śiva parāmeṣṭhi-guru. One's preceptor is one's guru and his guru's preceptor is his paramaguru.

Some works (e.g. Nilatantra V. 65, 66) classify gurus as Divyaugha (divine), Siddhhaugha (sages) and Mānavaugha (human). In another way, gurus are divided into two classes (e.g. V. 64, 71), viz. Tārāguru and Devaguru. It is stated (e.g. Nīlatantra V. 70) that the names of male gurus should end in — ānanda (e.g. Brahmānanda) ornātha (e.g. Matsyendranātha) and those of female gurus in — ambā (e.g. Jayāmbā).

Tantras believe that none can take to the Tantric way of life and worship without initiation by a guru of certain qualities.²⁷ He will, at first, assume the vitality of the paramaguru in his own body, and then cause it to enter into that of the disciple. The guru will decide the suitability of the particular mantra for a particular disciple. Initiation by a woman is especially effective; eight times more potent is the initiation by one's mother. It is interesting to note that one is forbidden to receive mantra from one's father. The husband is debarred from initiating his wife.

In some Tantras (e.g. Nilatantra V. 68) the Täntric guru is regarded as superior even to one's father.

Initiation of a special type is called *Abhiseka*, which consists in sprinkling holy water on the neophyte while reciting *mantras* to propitiate different deities, especially for warding off evil spirits.

Abhisekas of different types are applicable to disciples in different stages of spiritual life. These are as follows:

(i) Śāktābhiṣeka: for the disciple who has just begun sādhanā. In it, the guru reveals the nature of Śakti and a wonderful new energy is infused into the disciple.



- (ii) Pūrņābhiṣeka: for the disciple who has acquired fitness by means of purascaraṇa etc. Real sādhanā begins in it. For this kind of Abhiṣeka one has to undergo severe ordeals;²⁸ it is believed to confer divinity on the devotee.
 - (iii) Kramadīksābhiseka:
 - (iv) Samrajyabhiseka:
 - (v) Mahäsämrājyābhiseka:
 - (vi) Yogadiksābhiseka:
 - (vii) Pūrnadiksābhiseka:
- (viii) Mahāpūrnadīkṣābhiṣeka: in it the sādhaka reaches the fulfilment of spiritual aspiration. He then performs his own śrāddha, offers pūrnāhuti with the sacred thread and śikhā (tuft of hair on the head). In this stage, the relation of guru-śiṣya ceases. The sādhaka himself gradually realises the so'ham (I am that) state, attains liberation in life and is called Paramahamsa. In fact, the realisation of the identity of Jīva and Brahman is the highest goal of Tantric initiation.

According to some, Diksā is twofold, viz.

- (i) Vahirdiksā: consists of pūjā, homa and other external rites. By it the sāttvika feeling is aroused.
 - (ii) Antardīkṣā: it helps the awakening of the Kuṇḍalinī energy. According to others, Dīkṣā is threefold, viz.
 - (i) Sambhavi: in it the mind is purified.
 - (ii) Śāktī: in it the spiritual energy is aroused.
 - (iii) Mantri: it arouses the power of mantra and gods.

According to the Viśvasāra-tantra, dikṣā is fourfold, viz. Kriyāvatī Kalāvatī, Varṇamayī and Vedhamayī (see Prāṇatoṣiṇī II.4, p.118). The Kulārṇava (XIV) states seven modes of dikṣā, viz. Kriyā, Varṇa, Kalā, Sparśa, Vāk, Dṛk, Mānasa. According to the Rudrayāmala, it is of three kinds, viz. Āṇavī, Śāktī and Śāmbhavī (See Prāṇatoṣiṇī, II.4). The other forms are Krama, Pañcāyatana, Ekamantra, etc. Āṇavī dikṣā is divided in the Ṣaḍanvaya-mahāratna into ten sub-varieties.

In another way, dikṣa is twofold, Kriyā and Jñāna. Of these, Kriyā is manifold. In accordance with the propensities and capacity of the devotees concerned, dikṣā is of infinite varieties. According to Abhinavagupta, dikṣā anantavibhedabhāk. The object of dikṣā is to guide the person concerned along the way to salvation by removing the malas (dirty substance) which are:

Anava: it gives rise to the narrow jīva-hood of Śiva; unless it is removed the realisation of the identity of Śakti is not possible.

Buddhigata: by its removal the acquisition of real knowledge is possible.

Māyīya: the root of the knowledge of viṣaya and viṣayi; the cause of ahankāra. Unless it is removed, salvation is unattainable.

Ways to Liberation

The Tantric work, $Parananda-sutra^{29}$ ordains three paths for the attainment of the goal. These are:

- (i) Daksiņa: prescribed in the Veda, Smṛti and Purāṇa.
- (ii) Vāma: declared in the Veda and Agamas.
- (iii) Uttara: shown by the word of the Veda and the guru who is itvannukta.

Vāma is of two kinds:

- (i) Madhyama: in it all the five makaras are resorted to.
- (ii) Uttama: in it only madya, maithuna and mudrā are used.

Some Tantras, however, add a few more paths. For example, the Kulārṇava (ii. 7-8) provides as many as six; these are Vaiṣṇava, Śaiva; Dakṣiṇa, Vāma, Siddhānta, Kaula; each succeeding is superior to the preceding one. The Kulārṇava (ii. 6-7) ordains five āmnāyas or paths to mokṣa. These are East, West, North, South and Urdhva. The Paraśurāma-kalpasūtra (i. 2) has the same thing to say.

The Attainment of Liberation

The Kulārṇava holds (I. 105-107) that liberation is not possible by the study of the Veda and other Śāstras nor by resorting to āśramas (stages of life). Mukti is possible by correct knowledge alone. This knowledge is to be acquired from one's guru. It further states (I. 111-12) that egoism leads to bondage, and that the words 'nothing is mine' lead to liberation.

Tantra recognises *jīvanmukti* (Liberation in life) which consists, as the *Pārānanda* holds (p.9, Sutras 3-8), in visualising the deity worshipped. A person, liberated while alive, is not affected by *Karman*, meritorious or sinful.

TANTRA VIS-A-VIS ANCIENT INDIAN CULTURE

Śākta Works and Tantra

The Tantras and Śākta works are, to a great extent, similar. But, a line of demarcation is drawn by some between the two. According to

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P. V. Kane, the Śāktas look upon Devī as Supreme, but Tantras (including Buddhist and Jaina works) are not confined to Devī or Śakti alone. The latter may be agnostic, Vedāntic or Sāhkhyaite in outlook.

Veda and Tantra

Some are of the opinion that Tantric religion is opposed to the Vedic.³⁰ The great Śaṃkarācārya, in his commentary on the *Brahmasūtras*, condemns Tantra as running counter to the Veda. We shall briefly deal with this matter.

The Rudrayāmala (ch. xvii) includes the Supreme Goddess in the Atharvavedic pantheon. The Kulārṇava-tantra states (II. 10. 85, 140-41) that Kulaśāstra is based on the Veda. It has been pointed out that Śakti of Tantra has its precursor in the goddess of the Devīsūkta. There is, however, no unanimity on this point. Those, who want to prove the antiquity of Tantra, hold that the germ of many Tantric matters is found in the Veda. The Rgveda refers to Śakti of God. The word Śakti is found several times in the Rgveda both in the singular and plural. There is, however, no provision for the worship of Śakti as a separate creative principle. Protection, courage and bounty, etc., are associated with Śakti. In Rgveda, X. 125 Vāk is a goddess associated with all gods; she is the principle of all energy. As Śakti is associated with Śiva in later literature, so females of gods are mentioned in the Rgveda; e.g. Indrānī and Varuṇānī are the consorts respectively of Indra and Varuṇa.

Some scholars point out the Vedic Mahāvrata rite as an instance. It is intended to strengthen, at the winter solstice, the sun so that it may resume its vigour, and make the earth fruitful. In an older form of the ritual, sexual union as a fertility rite is permitted. The magic and abhicāra, etc., contained in the Atharvaveda, are supposed to be the precursors of such matters in Tantra.

Some find Tantric elements in the concept of Mahanagni (the Great Naked Woman) in this Veda. The genital organ of her is stated (AV.IV.1.36) to have been sprinkled by the As'vins. It was, perhaps, part of a fertility rite.

In the Rgveda Khila, which is perhaps a later addition, we meet with Mahānagnī who is told that 'he', not being satisfied, is roaring (V. 22.6, AV.XX.136.5 with variants). There is a reference (A.V.xx.136.6 RV. Khila-V.22.9) to Mahānagnī running after Mahānagna, her male partner, and the male enjoying the female (AV.XX.136.11=RV. Khila V.22.9).



Mahānagnī may symbolise the altar for Vedic sacrifice, which is described as a young woman supervising the ritual (RV.X.114.3).31

That Tantra does not militate against Vedic tradition can be proved in many ways. Śiva and Śakti, the pivot of Tantric philosophy, occur in many texts of the Vedic literature. For example, in the Hamsopanişad, we find Sadāśivaḥ śaktyātmā. In the Śvetāśvatara, the Supreme Energy of God is stated to be heard in many ways (Parāsya śaktir-vividhaiva śrūyate). This Energy, from which emerge the three deities Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Maheśvara, presiding respectively over Creation, Preservation and Destruction, is Ādyā Śakti of Tantra. So, it is stated, in the Rāmapūrvatāpanī Upaniṣad, Śaktayastisra eva ca. (Three indeed are the Śaktis).

The Varāhapurāṇa says: prayojanavasāc-chaktir-ekaiva trividhā bhavet (The single Śakti, according to necessity, becomes threefold). The Gaurisamhitā declares.

Jñānam icchā tathā kriyā gaurī brāhmī tu vaiṣṇavī/ tridhā śaktiḥ sthitā yatra tatparam jyotir-omiti//

The supremacy of the female energy is aptly expressed in the following lines of the Kubjikā-tantra:

brahmānī kurute srṣṭim na tu brahma kadācana/ vaisnavī kurute raksām na tu visnuh kadācana//

The consort of Brahman performs creation, not Brahma; the wife of Vișnu gives protection, not Vișnu; (similarly the wife of Rudra devours, not Rudra).

Śamkarācārya, a vigorous exponent of the Brāhmanical religion, says in his *Anandalaharī*:

śivaḥ śaktyā yukto yadi bhavati śaktaḥ prabhavitun/ naced evam devo na khalu kuśalaḥ spanditum api//

Siva, united with Sakti, may assume power; otherwise, in this way, the god is not able even to throb.

The paramount power of Śakti is recognised also in various Upanişads, e.g. *Tripurātāpanī*, *Tripuropanişat*, *Devyupanişat*, etc. The *Tripuropaniṣad* mentions even worship with five *Makāras*.

So, we cannot brand Tantra as veda-vāhya.

It should, however, be noted that these Upanisads are regarded by some as apocryphal, and of much later origin.

The Kenopanisad, which is genuine, illustrates, through legend of Umā-Haimavatī, the supreme power of Umā, corresponding to Tāntric Śakti.



The Isopanisad has been interpreted by some, notably the late Paficanan Tarkaratna of Bhatpara, W. Bengal, from the Sakta standpoint.

In some Brāhmanas (e.g. Šatapatha, V. 1.2.9, Aitareya, III.1.5, etc.), drinking appears to have been in vogue in sacrifices.

The Vedic sacrifices of Vājapeya and Sautrāmani appear to foreshadow the Tantric Cakra. In Vajapeya (drink of strength) not only Somarasa but also ordinary Surā used to be drunk. In Sautrāmani, Surā, instead of Soma, was offered to deities.

The Tantric attitude is noticeable in the idea that, in the performance of a sacrifice, the persons present become Brahmanas, and caste-distinction is not observed.

The mystic syllables Phat, Hum, etc. used in such Vedic texts as Taittirīya Āranyaka iv.27, remind one of Tantric Bijas.

The Vedic ritual of purifying the body by reciting mantras and touching the different limbs, supposed to be occupied by god (Aitareya Āranyaka, iii.2) reminds one of Tantric Nyāsa.

Those, who advocate the high antiquity of Tantra, call it the fifth Veda, and think that its authority is not less than that of the Veda.32 Some are of the opinion that the subject-matter of Tantra is nothing but Vedic rites applicable in practical life; the relation of Veda to Tantra is like that of a tree to its branches. Another analogy is that Tantra exists in Veda even as fragrance rests in flowers. Tantra has not given up Vedic rites, the former has only simplified the latter, and made them easier. For example, Tantra, too, recognises the homa of the Vedic sacrifice, but unlike the Veda, it does not attach much importance to the external aspect of it. Tantra emphasises self-surrender which is the inner significance of homa.

As we have seen above, there are anticipations of the Tantric conception of the human body in the Atharvaveda. In fact, Tantra is sometimes called upaveda of the Atharvaveda.33 It should however, be noted that there is no evidence of any direct connexion between this Veda and Tantra.

Kullükabhatta, the noted Bengali commentator of the Manusmrti, divides Śruti (i.e. revealed literature) into two kinds viz. Vaidika and Tantrika.

In the interpretation of certain Vedic texts, e.g. Rgveda i.164.45,34 the mantrikas have declared four stages of speech, viz, Para, Pasyanti, Madhyamā and Vaikharī; the fourth kind of speech is attributed to human beings.

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This division is found in Tantra too. In this respect, Tantra may have influenced the Vedic interpreters.

Tantra and Purāna35

Many of the Purāṇas were influenced by Tantra to a great extent; this influence is most marked in the *Bhāgavata-purāna*.

In Xi.3.47, 49 this Purāṇa ordains the worship of Viṣṇu according to Tāntric rules. In Xi.11.37, Xii.11.2, etc., this Purāṇa refers to Tāntric cults of Viṣṇu, Tāntric diksā and some Tāntric methods.

Again, the Tantric form of worship, abounding in mantra and kavaca, is similar to that occurring in the Puranas. There is, however, a vital difference between the Tantric and Puranic methods. The Tantric worshipper identifies himself with the deity worshipped by him. But, the follower of the Purana does not do so; he is always conscious of the fact that he is finite with limited capacity, whereas God is infinite with unlimited power. The general attitude of the Puranas to Tantra is voiced by the Devibhagavata (xi.1.25); it states that as much of Tantra as is not opposed to the Veda is authoritative; whatever is opposed to the Veda is to be abjured. This work refers to the immanence of the Goddess (iii.6).

From the sixth or seventh century onward, Purāṇa began to adopt Tāntric forms of worship. Tāntric mantra, nyāsa, mudrā, maṇḍala, etc. infiltrated into Purānas and through them into Smrti.

The Agnipurāṇa (chaps 27.81-87, 304) states many Tāntric mantras and rites. It provides (cccXII.24) that the worship of Viṣṇu should be in three ways, Vedic, Tāntric and Mixed; the second is for Śūdras alone. The Kālikā-purāṇa devotes considerable space to mantra, mudrā and āsana, etc. The Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa contains Lalitāsahasranāma which is clearly Tāntric. The Devimāhātmya or Durgā-Saptaśati, popularly called Caṇḍi, a part of the Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa, is a glorification of Śakti.

Brahmana, Upanisad and Tantra³⁶

Winternitz and B. L. Mukherji think (in Woodroffe, Shakti and Shāktas) that there are anticipations of Tāntric occultism in the Brāhmaṇas. The latter holds that allusions to sexual union are prominent in both the classes of works. According to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (viii.4.4.11), the woman's place is on the left. Winternitz thinks this to be an anticipation of Tāntric vāmācāra.



Kāli, the prominent Tāntric goddess, appears, probably for the first time, in the *Mundakopanisad* (i.2.4) belonging to the *Atharvaveda*.

Elements of Tantra, particularly Śakti as the principle of energy, are found in some Upaniṣads. The Kenopaniṣad depicts Umā Haimavati (daughter of Himālaya) as omnipotent. In the Śvetāśvatara, it is said that the Brahmavādins, through meditation and Yoga, saw Śakti as identical with God and hidden by its own attributes or by the three gunas. It speaks (vi.8) also of Brahman as possessed of the highest Śakti in various forms. The Nārāyanopaniṣad (2.1) contains an invocation of Durgā.

Rāghavabhaṭṭa, on the Śāradātilaka, observes that Tantra cult is based on Śruti, as attested by the Upaniṣads Rāmapūrvottara-tāpanīya and Nṛsimhottara-tāpanīya. Bhāskararāya, in his Setubandha commentary on the Vāmakeśvaratantra, refers to certain Upaniṣads as dealing exhaustively with devotion to Mahātripura-sundarī. It explains catvāri īm (Rgveda V. 47.4) as referring to Kādividyā. The Śāktopaniṣad contains such Tāntric words as Tripurā, Tripurātāpanī, Devī etc. The Bahvṛcopaniṣad refers to Parā Śakti and Kādi Vidyās. According to P. V. Kane, these minor Upaniṣads were composed deliberately to bolster up Tāntric authority in the society where Tantras were generally accorded an inferior position.

Some Tantras cite the authority of Upanișads in certain matters. For example, the *Kulārṇava-tantra* quotes the *Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad* (VI. 23) about the importance of *guru*, as stated before.

The resemblance of the basic principles of Tantra with many of the Upanişadic doctrines is clear. For example, the idea of saguņa and nirguņa Brahman of the Upanişads occurs in many verses of the second chapter of the Mahānirvāṇa-tantra. The saguņa Brahman of the Upaniṣad is God whose aspects are Creator, Preserver and Destroyer. A similar idea has been expressed in several verses of the above Tantra.

Tantra and Smṛti³⁸

Though the entire Tantric system has not been categorically condemned in Smrti, yet aspects of this system have been denounced. Apararka on the Yājñavalkya-smrti, i.7, thinks that Manu (xii. 95-96) refers to the scriptures of the Śaivas i.e. Tantras, by the words Vedavāhya Śāstras. Manu, xi. 63, however, clearly decries abhicāra; it is a prominent topic of Tantra. Abhicāra has been treated as an Upapātaka or minor sin. Magic rites, designed to harm enemies, have



been regarded as sins in such early works as Apastamba-dharmasūtra (i.9. 26-27), Baudhāyana (ii.1.2.16), Gautama (25.7), Manu-smṛti (ix. 290) and Yājāavalkya-smṛti (ii. 289). Wine is regarded as an indispensable article for Tantric sādhanā, but drinking of surā has been denounced in Dharmaśāstra as causing mahāpātaka or grave sin particularly on the part of Brāhmaṇas. In connexion with Durgotsava of the Tāmasika type, wine is prescribed as an article to be offered to the goddess. Certain authorities, however, provide that it should be avoided. The Purāṇas forbid the offer of wine by dvijas, particularly Brāhmaṇas. The Brahma-purāṇa prohibits wine in the Kali Age on the part of dvijas (kalau varjyam dvijātibhih). The Kālikāpurāṇa declares that a Brāhmaṇa, offering wine, becomes degraded (brāhmnyād eva hīyate).

The popularity and spread of Tantricism induced some Puranas to absorb certain Tantric rites and customs. Partly through Puranas and partly under the compelling social conditions, the Smrti digests had to recognise Tantric practices. The general attitude of Smrti writers to Tantra appears to have been one of acquiescense, and even acceptance, insofar as Tantric rites did not run counter to Vedic authority and the established Brahmanical rites and customs based on the Veda.

Tantra and Vedanta³⁹

According to Tantra, Kundalinī is the inner spiritual power lying dormant within the human body. By Sādhanā man can reach that stage when the human is transformed into the divine. It is then that Jīva becomes Śiva. The Upaniṣad, too, prescribes the means by which the individual soul (jīvātman) can be transformed into the Supreme soul (paramātman). The fundamental difference in approach between Upaniṣad and Tantra is that according to the former, the means of reaching the goal is bhāvanā (contemplation, meditation), and according to the latter, mere bhāvanā is not enough; it must be accompanied by kriyā (action). The Tantra prescribes physical efforts along with mental or spiritual power. Vedānta accepts the eternal Śivahood of jīva, but Tantra holds that Śivahood can be attained by practices of special kinds.

In many respects, Tantra is similar to the Upaniṣads. Like the latter, it believes that creation is but the sport ($l\bar{l}l\bar{a}$) of the Supreme Puruṣa. At the time of creation, Puruṣa and Prakṛti appear simultaneously, and they resort to the Supreme Puruṣa. At the time of dissolution, they are again merged into Brahman or Iśvara.

Like Upanișads, Tantra is non-dualistic.40



Tantra and Samkhya

There is an impression among some that Tantric religion is based on Samkhya philosophy. Both the systems use the terms Purusa and Prakṛti; this, perhaps, has led to the above idea. But, there is a gulf of difference between the two concepts as used in the two systems. Unlike the Tantric Śiva, the Puruṣa of Sāṃkhya is not the Universal soul; he is not the indivisible, infinite and eternal Brahman. According to Sāṃkhya, Puruṣas are many and vary with individuals. He no doubt stays with Prakṛti, but is himself inactive; he has no power to create anything. In the presence of Puruṣa, Prakṛti carries on its creative activity at which Puruṣa is the passive onlooker. Śakti or Parā Prakṛti of Tantra is different from the Mūlaprakṛti of Sāṃkhya. The former is the divine energy of the Supreme Lord—parāsya Śaktir vividhaiva śrūyate—by this, Upaniṣad has indicated it as the supreme energy of Brahman.

According to Sāṃkhya, Prakṛti, consisting of the three qualities of Sattva, Rajas and Tamas, is the source of the material world. Due to its close nearness to Puruṣa, creation proceeds in the order of Mahat, etc. At the time of dissolution, all the created objects are merged into the eternal Prakṛti. According to Tantra, however, both Puruṣa and Prakṛti emanate from the Supreme Being who is niṣkala. Prakṛti is the creative energy of Brahman. Brahman, possessed of this energy, is called Sakala. Sakala Brahman is Puruṣa and his energy is called Prakṛti: these two are not absolutely distinct entities. Creation is not possible without the union of Puruṣa (Śiva) and Prakṛti (Śaktī).

Sāmkhya philosophy has a leaning towards dualism. But, according to Tantra, Purusa and Prakṛti are but the manifestations of the one infinite eternal Brahman. The ultimate goal of Tāntric sādhanā is communion with the attributeless (nirguna) niṣkala Para Brahman.

A basic distinction between Sāmkhya and Tantra is this. According to the former, the existence of God has not been established. But, Tāntric religion is founded on theism. The efficient cause of creation, according to Sāmkhya, is the union of Prakṛti and Puruṣa, the latter being inactive. Due to union with Puruṣa, the equilibrium of Prakṛti, constituted of the three aforesaid qualities, is disturbed. Thus, Prakṛti becomes ready to create. But, in Tantra, creation is the sport (lītā) of Brahman possessed of attributes (saguṇa). Brahman is not distinct from His Prakṛti. So, Prakṛti, though having three qualities, is not jaḍā (unconscious). She is conscious, and, resorting to her, Saguṇa Brahman (=Īśvara) manifests Himself in the divine objects of the world.



The Śāradātilāka clearly reveals the influence of the Sāṃkhya system. It enumerates 36 tattvas including those of the Sāṃkhya system. It should be noted that, like Sāṃkhya, Tantra regards discriminative knowledge (viveka) as essential for reaching the goal.

It should be noted that theistic Sāmkhya supplied the basis for the early Pāñcaratra, Pāśupata and some other popular religious systems.

Tantra, Buddhism and Jainism

Hindu Tantra is opposed to the basic principle of Buddhism that non-violence is the highest religion. It thinks that this principle is meaningless: because, without violence of some sort or other life cannot exist. The food, that is essential for life, is *jīva*. Animal slaughter is directly perceived. But, when we gather fruits from a tree, we commit violence to it. When we drink cow's milk, we deprive the calf of it; thus, it is a kind of violence. In this way we find that violence is indispensable for our existence.

A comparison of Hindu Tantra with the Buddhist fundamental reveals fundamental similarities in some respects and differences in others. Gods of the Hindu pantheon are not generally recognised in Buddhism. Buddhist Tantra is silent about Sakti and Sāktism, the corner-stone of the philosophical edifice of Hindu Tantra. Instead of Siva and Devi (Śakti), the male and female principles of Hindu Tantra, the Buddhists have Upāya and Prajnā, the latter having the same characteristics as the former but in a reverse process. Buddhists advocate Śūnyatā (nihilism) not recognised by Hindus. As regards the goal and the means to its attainment, both have remarkable similarities. The importance of mantra, guru, maṇḍala, etc. is recognised in both the systems.

The cult of Śakti and Tāntrism of the Hindus are much older than the earliest extant Tāntric works of the Buddhists. Some scholars hold that the description of Tārā in such works as the Tārārahasya of Brahmānanda and the Tantrasāra of Kṛṣṇānanda is Buddhistic in origin. It is believed by some that Nāgārjuna, the celebrated Buddhist scholar of the 7th century, introduced the worship of Mahācīnatārā in India. It is claimed that names of Hindu deities, ending in or beginning with Vajra, owe their origin to Buddhist Tantra. Some believe that the Hindu goddesses Mahācīnatārā, Chinnamastā, Kālī, etc. were originally Buddhistic. It may be noted that Buddhist Tantra recognised such Purānic deities as Ganeśa and Sarasvatī.



Buddhist Tantra does not emphasise the cult of Mother Goddess with as much zeal as is found in Hindu Tantra. Nevertheless, it recognises Her. The reason is, perhaps, that the cult was too popular to be ignored.

From the arguments and counter-arguments about the mutual relationship of Hindu and Buddhist Tantras, we can conclude that, though the former had an independent origin, it absorbed certain elements of the latter. The latter also, perhaps, borrowed certain matters from the former.

The above facts lead to the conclusion that Hindu Tantra could not have been modelled on Buddhist Tantra, as is supposed by some scholars. It has been pointed out elsewhere that none of the three famous Chinese travellers refers to the study of Buddhist Tantra in India. Again, excepting perhaps the *Guhyasamājatantra* and *Mañjuśrī-mūlkalpa*, there is hardly any Buddhist Tantra dating back to a period earlier than 650 A.D.; but there is evidence of the prevalence of Tāntric practices in India long before 600 A.D.

The Rudrayāmala (17-119-25) states that the Buddha taught Vasiṣṭha the Kaula way of Tantra. This is pointed out by some as an evidence that the Hindu Tantra was derived from the Buddhists. This is, however, rejected by others, notably P. V. Kane, as unfounded.

- Some miraculous powers like transformation of a dragon into an insect, crossing rivers on foot, etc., attributed to the Buddha in some works (e.g. Mahāpadāna Sutta), remind one of Siddhis in Tantra. It is, however, believed by many that such powers were attributed to him by later writers.

Some literary evidences are pointed out to show that the Buddha came under the influence of Tantric ideas. For instance, in the Majjhima Nikāya (ed. Mitra, p. 315), the Buddha is stated to have remained at a cemetery, using bones as his pillow. This is dismissed by some as an interpolation. Others do not find any Tantric practice in it. The same work (I. 79) states the views of some Śramaṇas that sexual enjoyment with young female ascetics is a means to salvation. The Kathāvatthu (Majjhima, PTS, I. p. 305) mentions sexual union as a way to salvation.

These practices are inconsistent with the essence of Buddhism which advocates cessation of desire $(tanh\bar{a}=tr,\bar{n}\bar{a})$ as the goal of $S\bar{a}dhan\bar{a}$. These were probably later fabrications or intruded into Hindu Tantric ideas with the conversion of Hindus who imbibed ideas of



Hindu Tantra.

The use of skulls as begging bowls by the monks (e.g. Cullavagga, XXIII. 1-2) was, perhaps, introduced by the practice of the above converts.

The belief in the use of charms and spells for benevolent and male-volent purposes, as reflected in some Buddhist works (e.g. Cullavagga V-10-2), is clearly Tantric.

The injunctions for the preservation of the body and disciplining the mind, found in some Buddhist works, appears to point to Tantric influence.

The importance, attached in Jaina works (e.g. Mudrāvicāra, Mudrāvidhi) to Mudrā, the Jaina rules for physical and psychological discipline, the Jaina Māṭṛkas Vidyādharī, Yoginīs, etc., the belief in magical rites and potency of mantras, the attribution of miraculous powers to Mahāvīra, etc. appear to betray Tāntric influence on Jainism. But, the extreme austerity of Jainism and ascetic morality, inculcated in it, made it less vulnerable to Tāntric infiltration than Buddhism.

Tantra and Vaisnavism

We have seen that there was a distinct class of Vaiṣṇava Tantras. So, the influence of Tantra on Vaiṣṇavism, as on other religious faiths of India, is obvious. According to the Vaiṣṇavas, Kṛṣṇa and Rādhā are the two Supreme Realities, or the two manifestations of one Supreme Reality. It is believed by many modern scholars that Kṛṣṇa-Rādhā is only another form of Śiva-Śakti of Tantra. Rādhā is characterised as the Hlādinī Śakti of Kṛṣṇa. Śiva-Śakti of Tantra may have inspired the moulding of Kṛṣṇa-Rādhā or both Tantra and Vaiṣṇavism may have been indebted to a common popular source for their respective ideas. Nevertheless, the similarity between the two faiths is too striking to be explained away.

The Pañcarātra works of Vaiṣṇavas reveal a very close relation with Śākta Tantras in some respects. For example, in the latter, the all-pervading Ādyā Śakti has been designated as 'Yoni' (source) of everything. Likewise, in the Ahirbudhnya=saṃhitā (59.7), Śakti, in the form of Lakṣmī, has been called 'Yoni'. Like Tantra, the Ahirbudhnya (51. 54-61) designates Śakti as Tārā as well as 'Hrīm'. The same work, like Tantra, holds (10.55) that Lakṣmī, as the Supreme Energy (Parā Śakti), resides in Mūlādhāra. Like Tantra again, the Pañcarātra works provide for Nyāsas as a means of Sādhanā, and regard letters of the



alphabet as Mātrkās.

Tantra regards the body as the abode of God. In the different cakras and padmas, supposed to be within the body, Śaktidhāma (abode of Sakti) and Sivadhama (abode of Siva) are conceived. In certain Vaisnava Samhitās, too, Mathurā, Vrndāvana, etc. are regarded as the abodes of God. In some Purānas,43 Gokula has been described as God's abode in the shape of a thousand-petalled lotus. According to Tantra, this lotus is called Sahasrāra-padma which is supposed to be within the head. The description of Visnu and his Sakti, Laksmī, and of their abode, contained in the Brahma-samhita, a highly authoritative work in Bengal Vaisnavism, is Tantric in character. Rupa Gosvamin, a famous scholar-devotee of Bengal, holds44 that Rādhā is the essence of Mahāśakii glorified in Tantra. Both Jīva Gosvāmin, another celebrity in Bengal Vaisnavism, and Krsnadasa, a famous biographer of Caitanya, have quoted a verse about Rādhā from the Brhad-gautamīya Tantra.45 In his commentary on the Brahma-samhitā, Jīva Gosvāmin has cited a verse on Rādhā from the Sammohana-tantra. A scholar has attempted to establish Rādhā as the Mūlā ādyā prakrti śakti.46 The works like Rādhā-tantra, popular among the Vaisnavas of Bengal, are believed by many modern scholars to be fabrications. Without going into the authenticity of such works, we can say that Tantras acquired such an exalted position in the society that Vaisnavas had to write Tantras on their own cult in order to attract popular support.

The Bhāgavata-purāṇa, the most authoritative work of the Vaiṣṇavas, recognises⁴⁷ the authority of Tantra in matters concerning worship, initiation, etc. In his comment on a passage⁴⁸ of the Bhāgavata, Śrīdhara Svāmin refers to the authority of the Veda and Tantra for both bhukti (enjoyment) and mukti (liberation).

The influence of Tantra on Vaiṣṇavism was, however, not a one-way traffic. Vaiṣṇavism, in its turn, exercised considerable influence on Tantra. In certain original Tantras, Caitanya has been mentioned. The portions, mentioning Caitanya, may not have been written by Bengali authors, but on their authors the influence of Caitanya is obvious. The Isāna-saṃhitā, known to be a part of the Kulārṇava, asserts the divinity of Caitanya. In the Gūḍhāvatāra portion, stated to be a part of the Viśvasāra or Viśvasāroddhāra, Caitanya is described as an incarnation of Viṣṇu. In the Ūrdhvāmnāya saṃhitā, Caitanya replaces the Buddha, as an avatāra of Viṣṇu. Some portions of the Brahmayāmala and Kṛṣṇayāmala are called Caitanya-kalpa.



Tantra, Music and Dance

The influence of Tantra on the musical works is marked. For example, the $Samgita-ratn\bar{a}kara$ of Sarngadeva mentions Cakras, $N\bar{a}dis$ etc. within the human body like Tantra. The concept of $N\bar{a}da$, occurring in the Sanskrit works on music, has a close parallel to that occurring in Tantra. According to Tantra, $N\bar{a}da$ is of two kinds, viz. struck or with vibration $(\bar{a}hata)$ and unstruck or without vibration $(an\bar{a}hata)$; the former leads to pleasure, and the latter is heard by the Yogin who has been able to withdraw his senses, from the external objects, into himself. The conception of $V\bar{a}yu$ within the body, supposed in the musical lore to produce $N\bar{a}da$ in conjunction with fire, is also similar to that found in Tantra.

Like Tantra, musicologists believe (e.g. Samgita-ratnākara, I.2.149) that the gradual ascent of Kundalinī through the various Cakras, up to Sahasrara within the head, is the highest fulfilment of Sādhanā. In the manner of Tantra, some musical works (e.g. Samgītaratnākara. I.2) recognise several sheaths (Kośa) in the body, e.g. Annamaya, Manomaya, The same work reveals (I.2.140 f.f.) the belief that the soul, residing in certain petals of Anahata Cakra, desires success in song, etc. The soul, resorting to certain petals of Viśuddhicakra and in Lalana, also ensures success. Resting in brahmarandhra, it is satiated with nectar, and produces songs of a high quality. As in Tantric rites. Mudra (position of hands and fingers) is an essential element, so also in dance, various Mudrās were used. The Nātyašāstra of Bharata (C. earlier than 4th or 5th century A.D.) is the earliest extant work on dance. It is not certain whether, in the conception and use of Mudrās, Tantra influenced the former or vice versa. Though Tantric ideas were, perhaps, contemporaneous with the Atharvaveda, vet no Tantric work is known to have been composed or compiled before the fifth or sixth century A.D. So, there is no chronological difficulty in Bharata's influence on Tantra in this respect.

In Tantra, Śiva-Śakti is the pivot round which everything revolves. In works on music also Śiva is generally held in high esteem. Śarngadeva starts writing his work with salutation to Śiva. From Śiva *Grāma*, *Varna* etc. are supposed to emanate.

Rāgas, on which music rests, are associated with Siva and Pārvatī. One Rāga is declared to have emerged from each of the mouths of Siva and one Rāga from the mouth of Pārvatī. The Vinātantra, belonging to Yāmala, deals, among other things, with music. Of the 32 Yāmala



Tantras, some deal with Gāndharva or the art of music. The Trotala-tantra, and Kuṇḍiśvara-tantra, belonging to Yāmala, deal with instrumental music.

Besides the above, we find some Sanskrit works referring to certain results obtained by *Abhicāra*, produced by classical music. Such rites, supposed to cause harm to the enemy, are prominent in Tantra.

Tantra, Art and Architecture

Here we shall see how Tantra influenced sculpture, 49 painting and architecture. The relation of Tantra and music has already been discussed.

On the sculptural delineation at Khajuraho (850-1050 A.D.), Konarak (13th cent.), Ellora (8th cent.) Tantric influence is discernible. In this connexion, the Hoysaleśvara temple (12th cent.) of Mysore, the temple-walls of Middle and West India also deserve mention. Nudity, various methods of sexual union, etc. are some of the features of the sculpture of these places. Depiction of sex-act at Sānchi, Amarāvatī and Mathurā, the delineation of a naked couple in an erotic posture in the Lingarāja temple (11th cent.), of Bhuvaneswar and some images at various places⁵⁰ reveal Tāntric ideas.

Erotic designs, presumably derived from Tantra, are found in some terracotta figures also. For instance, a terracotta couple, found at Chandra Ketugad (2nd cent. A.D.) resembles the aforesaid figure in the Lingarāja temple. Some seals also appear to reveal Tantric influence. The Rupar seal (3rd cent. A.D.), for example, depicts copulation.

Various modes of sex act are delineated in some sculptures in caves and temples of various places, e.g. Kārlā, Badāmi (old Vātāpi), etc. A pillar sculpture from south India (17th cent.) represents a devotee worshipping the vulva of the Great Goddess.

Depiction of *mithunas* is common on some doors and at the entrance of some monuments. A divine couple in sexual intercourse is represented in a wooden bracket panel from a temple car (South India, 18th cent.).

Some scholars wonder why such erotic motifs should be in temples and other places. Various reasons for this have been suggested. Some think that maithuna being an essential item of pañcamakāras, indispensable for Tāntric Sādhanā, it was delineated at sacred spots.

Some suggest that such depictions were designed to pander to the carnal propensities of the rich people who constructed the temples.



Others suppose that such erotic representations were intended to attract the common people who are fond of such gross things of life.

Some think that a superstitious belief underlies such sculptures. Nobody disturbs a couple in sexual union. So, gods would not destroy or damage temples, representing men and women engaged in sexual intercourse, with such devastating calamities as thunder, earth-quake, etc.

There is another ingenious suggestion that these were designed to test the mental strength of those who were about to enter spiritual life.

One more suggestion is that as maithuna causes child-birth, so its representation at holy places will ensure the fertility of the land.

Another feature in the sculptural designs is the representation of Mudrās which constitute one of the five essential makāras in Tantric Sādhanā. Some of these Mudrās are Bhūmispars'a, Dharmacakra, Varada and Abhaya, mostly associated with the Buddha.

The influence of Tantra is probable on some images, e.g. Ardhanārīśvara representing Śiva and Umā corresponding to Purusa and Prakrti or Linga and Yoni.

Some of the sculptures, inspired by Tantra, are absolutely freefrom eroticism; e.g. Arya Tara of Nalanda (c.7th cent. A.D.), Vairasattva of Nālandā (c.10th cent.), Heruka of Sārnāth (c.10 cent.) etc. These are all Buddhistic.51

Some figures in bronze (e.g. Buddhist destroyer of death, united with his female partner—Tibet, 18th cent.), wood (e.g. South Indian Icon of the Divine Vulva stained with the coloured powders used to worship it). Yogini with serpentine energy emerging from her vulva (South India, C. 1800 A.D.), demonstrate Tantric influence.

Tantra influenced the domain of painting too.⁵² Some manuscripts contain Tantric paintings. There are such paintings on paper and cloth also.

The Arya-manjuśri-mūlakalpa contains a section on Patavidhāna (Picture-drawing). It may be noted that the Bengali artists, known as Patuyas, of whom those of Kalighat in Calcutta are the most wellknown, still pursue the art-tradition set forth in the above works.

Tantra included architecture also within the ambit of its influence. In this respect, Orissan architecture deserves special mention. Two major styles of temple-architecture of this province are Rekha and Bhadra, the former fancied as male and the latter as female. These two, being united, are conceived as bridegroom and bride whose garments are tied together.53 Google

Original from UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA The Hamsesvarī temple (completed 1814 A.D.) at Bansberia, Hooghly (West Bengal) is a unique example of temple-architecture inspired by Tantra.

The interior is like the six Cakras through which Kundalini, in the form of goddess Hamsesvari, goes upward. Besides the three well-known Tantric nerves, Ida, Pingala and Susumna, two more, called Vajrākhya and Citrini are also indicated by ladders.

The aforesaid goddess is seated on a lotus resting on a stem emerging from the navel of Siva lying on a *Trikona Yantra*. She has a human head in her lower left hand and *Abhayamudrā* in her upper right hand, in the other hands are a sword and a conch.

The very name *Hamsesvarī* is Tantric. *Ham* is a *Bīja* and *Sa* stands for Śakti. The two are locked (*kīlaka*) together; this locking is believed to lead to the highest goal.

From the foregoing account it seems that a twofold motive was, perhaps, responsible for Tantric representations in art and architecture; one religious and the other secular. Regarding the latter, visual expression of the passionate feelings of the artist, sculptor or architect or the gratification of the lustful propensities of the people might have motivated their work.

Tantra and Inscriptions

The extreme popularity of Tantra naturally influenced inscriptions also. For example, the Gangadhar Stone Inscription of Viśvavarman of 480 Mālava era (= 424 A.D.) refers to Māṭṛṣ (Mother Goddesses) and Tantra.

Homeland of Tantra—Was Tantra of Foreign Origin?

The place of origin of Tantra is difficult to locate. Nothing definite has as yet been known. All that we can do is to put forward conjectures. It is believed by some that Tantras of \overline{Agama} type originated in Kashmir. What is known as Tantra may have originated in Bengal, a view shared, among others, by Winternitz. In this connexion, it may be noted that a number of manuscripts of the \overline{Agamas} , written in Kashmir (Sāradā) script, are found in Kashmir. Those of Tantras, in Bengali script, exist in large numbers in various collections in Bengal. The works of the Saṃhitā class are generally supposed to have originated in different parts of India, particularly Bengal and Deccan. It is significant that, in Kāmākhyā (Assam), a stronghold of Tantra, Śāktism is known



to have been preached by the Bengali Śākta Krsnarāma Nyāyavāgīśa.55 His influence on the religious life of Assam induced the Ahom king. Rudrasimha, to become his disciple. In the remote Himlaj, in Baluchistan, the Bengali Brahmananda and his disciple, Jfianananda, preached Täntric philosophy and Sādhanā. The Tāntric way of Sādhanā in Nepal reveals the influence of Bengal.⁵⁶ The dissemination of Tantricism in China and Tibet is believed by some to have taken place through Buddhism propagated from Bengal. The supporters of Bengal origin also point out that all the three kinds of fish for use in sacrifice, mentioned in the Mahānirvāna-tantra, (vi. 7.3.) are found in plenty and widely consumed in Bengal. This fact appears to bear out the Bengal origin of this famous work. They find corroboration of their theory in an apocryphal verse⁵⁷ stating that, appearing in Gauda, this Śāstra developed in Mithila, rested at some places in Maharastra and was destroyed in Guriara. The noted Bengal work Prānatosinī quotes the Varadā-tantra (x) stated to contain a description of some sounds of the Nagara alphabet. From it we learn that the sound 'h' preceding 'y' is pronounced as 'jh'. Again 'h' preceding 'v' is pronounced as 'bh'. Initial 'y' is pronounced like 'j'. These sounds occur in dialects of Bengal, and, in some cases, in East Bengal. The colophon to the Mahākaulajñāna-vinirnaya mentions Candradvīpa in East Bengal from where it appeared.

Arthur Avalon (Woodroffe) is not inclined to accept the theory, put forward by a few scholars, that the fundamental principles of Tantra were imported into India from China. The pro-China theorists point out, inter alia, that the Rudrayāmala, a well-known Tantra, mentions China; Vasiṣṭha is said to have gone there where the Buddha (Buddhist doctrine) was established. The words TĀ-RĀ, RU-D-RA, TAN-T-RA, used in Tantra, are supposed to be loan-words from the Chinese language. Another ingenious, though not very convincing, argument is that the flower, called javā, which is considered to be very appropriate for the worship of Śakti, is called Chinese rose. There is a work called Mahācīnācāra-tantra. It is true that Tāntric doctrines and rites were widely prevalent for a long time in the region called Mahācīna.

Mahācīna is identified with Arabia felix by some, with China by others. The pro-China theorists give some other arguments too. The mystic syllables hrīm, krīm, etc., which are indispensable in the Tāntric rites, show the preponderance of the nasal sound. So, the above Tāntric syllables may have come from China (Vide Mātṛkābheda-tantra, Paṭala



- 12). The diagrams remind us of the pictorial writing in an age when letters did not yet originate. Chinese alphabet is a sort of pictorial writing. May be that the diagrams were borrowed from China. A mode of Tāntric Sādhanā is called cīnācāra. According to the Tārā-tantra, cinācāra came from Mahācīna. Cīnācāra is mentioned in some other Tantras too; e.g. Śaktisamgama, Sundarī, I. 188ff, Puraściaryārnava, I, Merutantra, etc. There is considerable divergence of opinions about the location of Mahācīna.
- P.C. Bagchi points out that the female energies (Yoginīs), mentioned in Brahmanical Tantras, include Lāmā; this word is Tibetan, and denotes Devī or Śakti. He further says that Dākinī, Hākinī, Śākinī, Lākinī, etc., are also exotic.

The Sammoha-tantra mentions the Täntric culture of foreign lands like Bāhlīka, Kirāta, Bhoṭa, Cīna, Mahācīna, Pārasika, Airāka, Kamboja, Hūṇa, Yavana, Gandhāra and Nepāla. P. C. Bagchi seems to be right in deducing, from this fact, that these countries also had some esoteric modes of Sādhanā which were known in India to be similar in character to Indian Tāntric practices.

According to the Pag Sam Jon Zan, Buddhist Tantra originated in Uddiyāna. The location of Uddiyāna (also spelt as Oddiyāna, Odiyāna, Odiyāna) is highly controversial. While some identify it with Udyāna in the Swat Valley, others would place it in Kashgarh. Haraprasād Sāstrī, followed by others, places it in Orissa. It is considered by some to have been a part of Bengal.

Some scholars believe that the conception of Sakti and her worship is unIndian. The introduction of the Sakti cult, as a main theme, makes them feel that Tantra is exotic.

While foreign elements in Indian Tantras cannot be ruled out, these, if any, have been mixed up in such a way that it is difficult, if not impossible, to sort them out.

H.P. Śāstrī thought, on the basis of a verse in the Kubjikāmata-tantra, that Tantra came to India from outside. According to others, this verse does not prove anything conclusively; it might simply hint at the prevalence of Tantra in India from earlier times. Arthur Avalon is of the opinion that Tantra was imported to India from Chaldea or Śakadvīpa. There is a Tibetan tradition that Asanga, the noted Buddhist philosopher of the fourth or fifth century A.D. introduced Tantric principles and practices in India. P.V. Kane does not attach importance to this tradition which is mainly based on the History of Buddhism by

Taranatha (b.1573 or 1575) who wrote over one thousand years after Asanga. Some have tried to establish the foreign origin of Tantra on the ground that the exalted position of the guru in it has nothing comparable in the Vedic and Puranic religions. Others, however, reject this argument by pointing out the high place of honour accorded to guru in the Nirukta (II.4), the Śvetāśvatara Upanisad (vi. 18.23), the Linga-Purana, Devibhagavata, etc. After an examination of the diverse views on the question, P.V. Kane concludes that a few mystic practices like kulācāra and vāmācāra might have originated abroad and have been brought to India, but there is no positive evidence of the Tantric system as a whole arising outside. On the contrary, he thinks that Tantric doctrines migrated to other places, notably China and Tibet, from India.

Against the view that Tantra was brought to India from China or Tibet, it may be pointed out that, whereas many Sanskrit Tantras were translated into Chinese and Tibetan, there is no evidence of any Tantric work of these places having been translated into Sanskrit.

India, as indeed all other ancient lands with an advanced civilisation, never lived in isolation.

The pottery, unearthed among the relics of Indus Valley civilisation (c. 3000 B.C.), appears to indicate links with Sumeria and Mesopotamia.

The theory of the influence of Babylon on Indian astronomy has been postulated by some scholars. The Baveru Jātaka testifies to contacts between the two countries.

The discovery of Sanskrit manuscripts, both Brahmanical and Buddhist, as well as of some images in various parts of Central Asia are unmistakable evidences of Indian influence in that region. Buddhism was the most powerful factor in the dissemination of Indian culture in that area.

Besides Indian colonial expansion and establishment of Indian kingdoms in some countries of the Far East, there were brisk cultural exchanges.

With China, India's contact dates back to centuries before Fa-hien set foot (401 A.D.) on the Indian soil. The Chinese looked upon India not only as the holy land of the Buddha's birth, but also as a country with immense possibility of trade and commerce. The words Cinakarpūru (a kind of camphor), Cīna-Karkatikā (a kind of gourd), Cīnaja (steel), Cinapista (a kind of lead), Cinamaya (an article made of red lead), Cināmsuka and Cinasicava, both denoting cloth, Cinarajaputra (a kind of fruit-tree), etc. leave no doubt about Sine Indian contacts.

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We have already seen that, on some grounds, Indian Tantra is supposed by some to have been borrowed from China.

It is interesting to note that the Chinese Taoist concept of Yang (Male principle) and Yin (Female principle), underlying everything, appears to correspond to the Tantric concept of Siva and Sakti. The acquisition of supernatural power by a devotee in China is like the achievement of Siddhi in Tantra. Among other things, this school advocates the utility of the following for long life and immortality in the mortal world; respiratory exercise, desciplined sexual intercourse; regulated diet. These prescriptions are found in Tantra too.

Some scholars find, in the celebrated Tārādevī of Tantra, close similarity with Astarte or Ashtaroth, the famous Mother Goddess of Western Asia.

There was brisk commercial and cultural contact between Tibet and India. The Jayadratha-yāmala refers to the practices of Lāmās (Lāmāvarga). It mentions 24 Lāmās; the list includes Lāmā, Śakinī. The term Lākinī, found in Tantra, is derived from Tibetan Lha-Kṣa which stands for a class of sorcerers and witches. In the Hevajra-tantra, the Lāmās are referred to in association with Dākinīs.

Besides the above facts, the Sammoha-tantra refers, inter alia, to China and Tibet as centres of Tantric culture.

It is, perhaps, significant that Jalandhara, one of the early Sakta Pithas, is situated on a highway connecting India with Tibet.

There are evidences galore that India had cultural and commercial relations of give and take with Greece, Rome and Egypt.

It should be noted that, according to the Sammoha-tantra, goddess Nilasarasvatī was born in a land included in Mongolia. In this connexion, we should bear in mind that one of the ethnic elements of the Indian population was Mongolian.

The cult of Mother Goddess was important in the ancient religious systems of many other countries. In those lands, there were beliefs and practices similar, in many respects, to those of the Tantric religion. For instance, we may cite the galli of the Syrian Mother Goddess, Astarte of Hierapolis, the Eleusian and Phrygian mysteries, the Dinonysian rites, the Marian secrets, etc. Esoteric forms of worship, resembling Tantric rites to some extent, prevailed in Phrygia, Syria, Lydia, Cappadocia, Pontus and Galatia; in these regions, the cult of Mother Goddess was popular.



Indiscriminate sexual intercourse was a part of a Greek festival in honour of goddesses Demeter and Persephone. The rituals, connected with the union of Cybele and Attis, Aphrodite and Adonis, Ishtar and Tammuz, Demetes and Zeus, were marked by sex-rites.

We have it on Frazer's authority⁶¹ that the Mother Goddess was worshipped, under different names, by many peoples of West Asia.

Hogarth testifies⁶² to the wide prevalence of the worship of Mother Goddess in Asia Minor and around the Mediterranean.

R. P. Chanda draws our attention to the similarity between the Sakti cult and the worship of the female deity in Asia Minor, Syria, Egypt and other Mediterranean countries. Analogous sex-practices are also to be noted.

Antiquity of Tantra

The number of extant Tantras is quite large. It can be presumed that centuries elapsed before the Tantra literature grew into a huge bulk. But, the origin of this literature is shrouded in obscurity.

The earliest Nepalese manuscripts of Tantras appear to have been written between the seventh and ninth centuries A.D. The Mahābhārata contains no reference to Tantra, although Itihāsa and Purāṇa are mentioned. Tantra is conspicuous by absence in the accounts of the famous Chinese travellers, Fa-hien (fourth century A.D.), Hiuen Tsang (seventh century) and I-tsing (seventh century A.D.). No Buddhist Tantra appears to have existed before 650 A.D. The first clear reference to this literature appears to occur in the Bhāgavata-purāṇa (c.800 A.D. or earlier) perhaps clearly refers to Tantra for the first time. These reasons led scholars like Winternitz to conclude that Tantra literature did not probably originate earlier than the fifth or sixth century A.D. In this connexion, it should be added that the Devī-purāṇa, a Bengal work probably originating about the seventh century A.D., shows profound influence of Tantra.⁶³

Some scholars⁶⁴ think that female terracotta figures, discovered among the ruins of the Indus Valley civilisation, testify to the prevalence of Tantrism in the pre-Vedic period.

Some⁶⁵ hold that, in the *Devisūkta* (x. 125) of the *Rgveda*, there are covert references to Durgādevī, who represents the earlier form of Śakti or Kālī, the principal goddess of Tantra. They also try to prove that there are other elements of Tantra in the *Rgveda*. For example, the *Rātri-sūkta* (x. 127) clearly refers to *Devī Durgā*. This theory is



rejected by the opponents. Others, however, regard this Sükta as a supplement (khila) interpolated into the Rgveda at a later time. It is further claimed that the magic and malevolent spells (abhicāra) of the Atharvaveda are the precursors of later Täntric rites. Some are of the opinion that Tāntric ideas originated from the Saubhāgyakānda of this Veda. The existence of Tantra, in very remote antiquity, is sought to be established with reference to certain Upanisads.

There is a view that Tantra originated among the Buddhists. It is argued that the Buddha, in order to popularise his teachings among all classes of people, introduced the Tantric ways. It is believed that all extant Buddhist Tantras originated from Mahāyāna Buddhism. The Mother Goddesses, Kālī, Tārā, etc. are supposed to have been originally Buddhist in conception.

In considering the antiquity of Tantra we have to think of Tantric ideas, Tantric practices and Tantric literature. Tantric ideas and practices are generally supposed to hark back to time immemorial. Primitive people, even before the dawn of civilisation, resorted to some practices which were the result of the natural propensities. The Tantric Yantra, mudrā and the mystic Bijas, etc. appear to indicate pictorial writings, use of finger pose as symbols of language and monosyllabic language of the primitive people. The black acts of Tantra, generally known as abhicāra, also appear to indicate the naive beliefs and crude practices of the primitive age.

With the passage of time, the ideas were cystallised and the crude and vulgar practices were retained. Tantric literature is of a much later growth. As in the case of literature in general, the long development and evolution of a language gives rise to literature; so also, in the case of Tantra, the natural human instincts found expression in human actions, which were followed by systematic works on Tantra literature. The primitive practices evolved into Buddhist Tantra at a certain time and at a certain palce, and into Hindu Tantra at a different time and place. As pointed out by Winternitz (History of Indian Literature, I), we find in Tantra an admixture of crude ideas and sublime philosophy, profound philosophical thought side by side with wild superstition and confused occultism. On the one hand, we find an impeccable code of morality side by side with wild orgies testifying to reprehensible immoral practices. All this shows later refinement introduced into primitive crudities.



The two hymns to Durga in the Mahabharata by Yudhisthira (Virata, ch. 6) and by Arjuna (Bhīsma, ch. 23) are supposed by some to indicate Tantric influence. But, these are regarded by other scholars as spurious and discarded in the critical edition of Poona. Another argument in support of the great antiquity of Tantra is that, in the Markandeya and Linga Puranas, the influence of Tantra is indubitable. There is mention of Tantra in the following Puranas: Varaha, Padma, Skanda, Brahma, etc. Samkara (c. eighth-ninth century) has accepted the authority of Tantra in his Anandalahari and Śaktamoda. The six Cakras of Tantra have been mentioned by him in his SarIraka-bhasya. Bānabhatta (seventh century) and Bhavabhūti (eighth century) mention the term Kāpālika, and refer to Tāntric views. The prevalence of Tantric and Sakta worship in the contemporary society can be presumed from Bana's works. While dealing with Patanjala philosophy, Mādhavācārya (fourteenth century) has quoted many lines from Tantra in his Sarvadars'anasamgraha. It is rather curious that even the heterodox philosophical systems of Bauddhas, Jains and Carvakas have been dealt with in this work, but there is no mention of Tantra in it. This tends to indicate aversion of the orthodox section of the society to the break-away Tantra Śāstra.

It was pointed out by the late Yoges Vidyānidhi that the names Brāhmī and Devanāgarī, as applied to Indian alphabet, bear the impress of Tantra. He thinks that the name Brahmā has been derived from Brāhmī, one of the eight māṭrkās in Tantra. He further believes that, in very early times, there was the practice of worshipping painted symbols of the goddess. One such symbol was devanāgara or the abode of the deity. From this Devanāgarī script was so called.

Those who are inclined to assume a very late origin of Tantra and to deny its authority, put forward several arguments the chief of which are as follows:

- (i) Unlike ancient Dharmaśāstra, Tantra does not exercise authority all over India. The influence of non-Aryan aborigines, led to its origin in Bengal where alone its authority has been recognised.
- (ii) Among the Māhāyāna Buddhists, the worship of deities Tārā, Vajrayoginī, etc., and mantra, bīja and japa, etc., are in vogue. Similar practices are found among the followers of Tantra also. So, it seems likely that Tantra arose from Māhāyāna Buddhism.
- (iii) From the practice of the worship of Sakti, ghosts, serpents, trees, etc., current among the aborigines, it seems that such practices crept into Tantra under their influence.

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- (iv) Tantra, as a Sastra, does not find a place in the famous Sanskrit lexicon Nāmalingānuśāsana, generally known as Amarakosa.
- (v) According to the Sūtasamhitā (Mukti-khanda) the customs of Paficaratra, etc., will be beneficial to those who have strayed away from the Vedic ways of life. This clearly indicates that Tantra arose long long after the Veda, at a period when Vedic authority lost much of its hold over the society, probably due to the spread of Buddhism.
- (vi) According to the Samba-purana the people, drifting away from the Vedic way of life, and averse to Vedic expiatory rites, will resort to Tantra for gradulally entering into the Vedic way.
 - (vii) In the Meru-tantra, the following couplet occurs: phirangabhasaya mantrastesam samsadhanad bhuvil imrejā navasatpanca landrajāscāpi bhāvinah//

The occurrence, in it, of the words Phiranga (one born out of the union of an Englishman), married to an Indian, imreja (Englishman), landra (London), etc., indicates that it was not composed earlier than at least the eighteenth century.

The Natyasastra, which in its present form is generally supposed to have originated about the fourth or fifth century A.D., does not mention Nadi, Cakra or Nada arising from them. This fact tends to prove that either Tantra did not arise before the Natyasastra or this literature had not yet established its authority.

There are counter-arguments also. For example, in the Yaśastilakacampü (Aśvāsa V). Bhāsa is stated to have said the following about Vāmācāra — one should drink surā and put on grotesque dress which attracts the mind of the people. Vāmācāra is a well-known Tantric way of life, and Bhāsa is placed by some in the fifth century B.C. At any rate, he appears to have flourished long before Kālidāsa (c. 5th century A.D.) who refers to him in the drama Mālavikāgnimitra. In the Lalitavistara (Chap. X) of about the first century A.D. the Buddha is stated to have learnt from Viśvāmitra 46 letters including am, ah and ksa. These three are treated as separate letters in Tantra alone. From this fact the pre-Buddha origin of Tantra can be inferred. In the above work, the word matrka occurs only in Tantra. The same work mentions Nigama which appears to be a designation of Tantra in this context. Among the relics of Indus Valley Civilisation, there are terracotta figures of matrkas and male figures sitting in a Yogic posture. Some scholars think that, even in those pre-Vedic times, Durga as Mother of the universe and Siva as Father were worshipped. This is a germ of later Tantra. It is not correct to say that Tantric authority was not established outside Bengal. Like the Bengalis, the inhabitants of the upper classes in other parts of India are divided into three major sects-Saiva, Sakta and Vaisnava. The mantras of all these sects are Tantric. If similarity alone between Mahāyāna Buddhism and Tantra is regarded as indicating the latter having been derived from the former, then, on the same ground, the former may be supposed to have been influenced by the latter. A few basic differences between the two render it impossible for Buddhism to give rise to Tantra. Buddhism teaches action without desire for its fruit, but Tantra ordains action with an object in view. Tantra prescribes different ways of sadhana in accordance with the different temperaments and capabilities of the persons concerned. But in Buddhism, there is not much consideration for differences in the mental or intellectual make-up of individuals. Buddhism categorically forbids violence like animal-sacrifice: Tantra allows the sacrifice of animals.

It is not clear what is meant by the reference to aborigines. Of the non-Aryan races, India was inhabited by Drāvidas, Odras, Paundrikas, etc. They were residents of the south. To believe that Bengali scholars produced Tantra under their influence is to deny the genius which characterised Bengal writers through ages. Other classes of aborigines, viz. Santal, Garo, Koch, etc., inhabited the hilly regions of Assam. The Bengalis have always distinguished themselves for intellectual independence. For example, while the rest of India implicitly recognised the authority of the Mitāksarā in the laws of inheritance and succession, Bengal formulated her own laws in the Dayabhaga. In literature, they created a new literary style called Gaudi rīti. In music, she contributed a distinct Raga called Gauda. To say that Bengali intellectuals borrowed Tantra from the above aborigines is an outrage towards their capacity and a denial of historical truth. Śakti has been worshipped in different forms and under various appellations in different parts of India. For example, Kāmākhyā in Kāmarūpa, Guhyeśvarī in Nepal, Vindhyavāsinī in the Vindhya region, Jvālāmukhi in Jalandhara, sixtyfour YoginIs and Annapūrnā, in Varanasi etc. So, the Śakti-worship of Tantra is very late, and originated in Bengal—this view cannot be wholly accepted.

Durgā-worship, influenced by Tantra, is in vogue not only in Bengal. As $Durg\bar{a}p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ or $Navar\bar{a}travrata$, it is current in other places too.



There is an image of Manasa Devi even on the far-off Govardhana hill. So, it cannot be asserted that serpent-worship has been in vogue in Bengal alone.

The Yogini-tantra is mentioned by Raghunandana in his Aṣṭāviṃśati-tattva and by Kṛṣṇānanda in his Tantrasāra. These writers belong to the sixteenth century. So, it is wrong to think that the above Tantra could not have been composed before the last three centuries. The work refers to the Koch King Viśvasiṃha (middle of 16th cent.). Some Tāntric works, like the aforesaid Meru-tantra, may have been composed very late. There is nothing to prove the late origin of Tantra as a class of literature.

Those, who attribute high antiquity to Tantra, push it back to prehistoric times. B. Foote claims to have found phalli among the neo-lithic remains in the Deccan.⁶⁷ Shāma Śāstrī is of the opinion that the symbols, found on some old coins, dating back to periods earlier than even the sixth or seventh century A.D., are nothing but Tantric hieroglyphics⁶⁸ which, according to him, are the precursors of the Devanāgarī alphabet. He thinks that some Tāntric works may be of later origin, but they represent a much older tradition.⁶⁹ Thus, the Tāntric Upaniṣads like the *Tripuropaniṣad*, containing Tāntric mystic syllables, contain a tradition of remote ages.⁷⁰

From the above arguments for and against the high antiquity of Tantra we can conclude that, in the matter of the origin of this class of literature, we must guard against the two extremes of a stupendously ancient period and a ludicrously modern epoch. May be that Tantric ideas originated even in Vedic times or earlier but systematic works were not, perhaps, composed earlier than the fifth century A.D.

In the welter of arguments for and against the antiquity of Tantras, some light is clearly visible. The Gangādhara Stone Inscription of Viśvavarman (424 A.D.) mentions Mātṛs or Mother Goddesses and Tantra. The mention of Dākinīs in association of the temple of the Mothers proves that P. C. Bagchi is wrong in his assumption about their late entry into Indian conception. The Bṛhat-saṇhitā (57.56) of Varāhamihira (c. 475-550 A.D.) mentions the groups of Mātṛs. The Viṣṇu-purāṇa, one of the earliest of the existing Purāṇas, speaks of Viṣṇu endowed with Śakti. It also mentions several names of Durgā, and states that if she is worshipped with wine, flesh, etc., she fulfils all desires of the devotee. In the Kādambarī of Bāṇabhaṭṭa (first half of the seventh century), there is a description of a temple of Caṇḍikā. It men-



tions the lion mount, the killing of Mahiṣāsura, the offering of heads of animals, doctrines of Pāśupatas, etc. The Māṭṛṣ and Yantras (diagrams) are also mentioned. The Harṣacarita of the same author refers to magic circles and human sacrifice, Siddhis, etc. The Mālatīmādhava of Bhavabhūti (c. eighth century) mentions human sacrifice to Cāmuṇḍā, Kāpālika, etc. It also refers to supernatural powers acquired by mantras.

The Hilsa image of Tārā, dating back to Devapāla's time (c. 812-850) bears a Tāntric formula containing the mention of Tārā, who, therefore, cannot be regarded as very late.

Whatever the date of origin of Tantra might have been, it appears, from epigraphical and literary evidences, that Tantric practices were established well before the sixth century A.D. In the case of the *Rgveda*, centuries elapsed between the origin of the *mantras* and their compilation into *Samhitā*. Similarly a long time might intervene between the origin of Tantric ideas and practices and their codification in treatises. There is enough of evidence to prove that Tantra reached the acme of popularity during the period between the seventh and twelfth century A.D.

Science in Tantra⁷¹

The matters, dealt with in Tantra, are supposed by many to be speculative nonsense entirely divorced from the realities of life. Those, who have approached Tantra with a scientific bent of mind, have found in it much that is true scientifically.

Seeing and hearing from afar, medical treatment from a great distance — these are some Siddhis (success, power) stated in Tantra to be attainable through sādhanā. It seems that the above Siddhis could accomplish what can be done now-a-days by means of television, radio and teletherapy, etc. The great power of concentration and will force is recognised by those who study psychology.

In Tantra, each deity has some colour or other. The Buddhas, in the posture of $Dhy\bar{a}na$, are represented as having a colour. In respect of creation, the Buddhist Tantra has the theory of nihilism $(S\bar{u}nyav\bar{a}da)$. From this as well as from their knowledge of colours, some presume that the Tantra writers were conscious of the light and its diffusion in the primordial state of the material world. What is now called cosmic ray was, perhaps, not unknown to them.



The monosyllabic *bijamantras* of Tantra have inner significance. For example, *lam* and *vam* stand for earth and water respectively of the five elements (*pañcabhūta*).

Tantra and Ayurveda

These two branches of learning exercised influence on each other. Portions of some Tantric works deal with $\overline{Ayurveda}$. For example, the $K\overline{a}litantra$ devotes chapter II to etiology of diseases. Chapter xii prescribes medicines for diseases.

One Bhāvamiśra of Akbar's court (16th. cent.) is known to have written a Tāntrika-cikitsā.

The science of Ayurveda appears to have developed on two lines, Vedic and Tantric. The latter, believed by some to have prevailed in pre-Aryan times, proceeds along two ways, one applying chemicals particularly, and the other poison.

It is significant that the Ayurvedic work, attibuted to Agnivesa, is entitled Agnivesa-tantra. The last part of the Susruta-samhitā is called Uttara-tantra. Surgery is called Salyatantra.

There is difference of opinion regarding both the number and names of the Tantric works. The Nityāṣoḍaśikārṇava (i.22) gives the number as millions. According to orthodox scholars, whose opinions are referred to by A. Avalon, it is a lac or more. In some Tantras, the number is stated to be 64.72

Tantras of Yāmala class are eight; the names differ in different fources.

According to the Sammoha Tantra, Cina has 100 main Tantras and 7 subsidiary ones, Dravida possesses 20 principal and 25 secondary works, Kerala has 60 chief works and as many as 500 subsidiary ones. The Agamas number 18 according to the Niḥśvāsa-tattva-saṃhitā. From the Meru-tantra (i.21) we learn that Śiva composed 108 Tantras.

The Siddhanta Agamas of South India number 28; however, opinions differ as to their number and extent.

The number of *Pañcarātra Āgamas* is generally said to be 108. But, actually their number is over 200.⁷³

Works on Tantra⁷⁴

Besides those published, there is still a considerable number of works in manuscripts in different collections of India and in some foreign institutions. We shall note below only the principal titles which are





very widely known.

Principal works on the Agamasastra of Kashmir:

(i) Mālinīvijaya, (ii) Svacchanda, (iii) Vijnānabhairava, (iv) Ucchuşmabhairava, (v) Ānandabhairava, (vi) Mṛgendra, (vii) Mātaṅga, (viii) Netra, (ix) Naiśvāsa, (x). Svāyambhuva, (xi) Rudrayāmala.

The main works of the $Pratyabhijn\overline{a}$ literature, closely related to \overline{A} gama, are:

(i) Śivadṛṣṭi of Somānanda (ninth century), (ii) Pratyabhijñākārika of Utpala (ninth century), (iii) Mālinivījayottaravārtika of Abhinavagupta (tenth-eleventh century), (iv) Pratyabhijñā-vimaršinī of Abhinavagupta, (v) Tantrāloka of Abhinava, (vi-vii) Tantrasāra and Paramārthasāra of Abhinavagupta, (viii) Pratyabhijñāhṛdaya of Ksemarāja, disciple of Abhinava.

Main works of the Samhitā class:

(i) Ahirbudhnya, (ii) İsvara, (iii) Pauşkara, (iv) Parama, (v) Sättvata, (vi) Bṛhadbrahma, (vii) Jñānāmṛtasāra, (viii) Jayākhya.

Noteworthy among Tantras are:

(i) Mahānirvāņa, (ii) Śāradātilaka of Lakṣmaṇadeśikācārya, disciple of Utpala (ninth century), (iii) Kulacūdāmaṇi, (iv) Tantrarāja, (v) Kālivilāsa, (vi) Jñānārṇava, (vii) Prāṇatoṣiṇī of Rāmatoṣaṇa, (viii) Varivasyārahasya of Bhāskararāya (eighteeth century), (ix) Kulārṇava (c. tenth century), (x) Prapañcasāra of Śaṃkarācārya, (xi) Rudrayāmala.

The Saundarya-laharī is a famous Tāntric work attributed to Saṃkarācārya.

The Vārāhī-tantra mentions fifty-four Tantras. Besides original Tantras, there are many digests, commentaries, lexicons, etc., e.g. Tantrasāra of the Bengali Kṛṣṇānanda (sixteenth century), Tantrābhidhāna, Mantrakośa, etc.

Of the Buddhist Tantras, famous are Arya-mañjuśrimūlakalpa (variously assigned to dates between the fourth and ninth centuries A.D.), Hevajratantra (c. eighth century A.D.), Prajňopāya-viniścaya-siddhi of Anangavajra (c. seventh to eighth century). Jñānasiddhi of Indrabhūti, disciple of Anangavajra.

Important Vaiṣṇava Tantras are the Gautamiya, Kramadipikā of Keśava. The Agni-purāṇa (39. 1-7) names twenty-five Vaiṣṇava Tantras; these are but the twenty-five Pañcarātra Saṃhitās including the Saṃhitās mentioned above.

Women in Tantra

Women occupy a very high position in Tantra. They are allowed equal freedom with men in Tantric rites. A woman, associated with a man for Tantric worship or for maithuna, is called Sakti, Prakṛti or Latā. She can be one's own wife, the wife of another person or even a courtesan. Maithuna, one of the five makāras, is not possbile without a woman. The mother is stated to be the most worthy person to be one's guru. The worship of virgin girls is regarded as a must in dikṣā and puraścaraṇa.

Bhakti in Tantra

The following nine modes of Viṣṇu-bhakti are stated in the Bhāgavata-purāṇa (vii. 5-23-24): śravaṇa (hearing), kīrtana (reciting names,) smaraṇa (remembering), padasevā (shampooing the feet), arcanā (worship), vandanā (salutation), dāsya (service), sakhya (friendship), ātma-nivedana (self-surrender).

Some Tantras also recognise nine forms of bhakti. For example, the Rudrayāmala (XXVII. 103-104) mentions nine ways with manana (reflection) for śravaṇa, dhyāna (meditation) for sakhya. This work leaves out the word Viṣṇu, mentioned in Bhāgavata.

The Pārānānda-sūtra (pp 6-7, Sūtras 35, 38-59) declares—bhoga-svargāpavarga-kāṃkṣiṇām bhaktireva ekaḥ panthāḥ; bhakti is the sole means for those who desire enjoyment, heaven and salvation.

Yuganaddha

The word literally means bound or tied (naddha) to a yoke (yuga). The idea is that the male and the female are united like a pair of bulls tied to the yoke. It is a symbol pointing to the unique harmony and inter-relation of masculinity and feminity, of blunt truth and symbolic truth of intellect and humanity.

It represents the union of the Male and Female Principles. In Buddhist Tantric philosophy, it is the non-dual state of unity of Śunyata (Vacuity) and Karunā (compassion).75

Guenther, in his book, Yuganaddha, tries, on the basis of Buddhist Tantras, to show that the Buddhist Tantrics view life as a whole. They do not permit excessive indulgence of passions nor do they teach total abstention or escape from life. They advocate complete reconciliation to the facts of life. The Tantric accent on the sexual aspect is a correc-





tive against the one-sided intellectualism and rationalism of philosophy which cannot tackle the problems of daily life.

Value of Tantra

Tantra liberalised the rites and rituals by reducing the rigour of Brāhmaṇical practices. It ensured greater freedom of religious performances to women and Śūdras; the rigid caste discrimination of the Brāhmanical system was rejected. It laid greater emphasis on $kriy\bar{a}$ or practices of certain kinds as means to progress on the way to salvation. Mere contemplation or meditation was not regarded as enough by Tantra. It prescribed means of healing diseases, causing mischief to enemies and of acquiring worldly happiness. Tantra also taught Siddhis or means of acquiring supernatural power whereby many worldly things could be achieved.

These are the reasons which made Tantra popular among the mass of people. Its popularity was so deep and wide that it left its imprint on the Purāṇas⁷⁶ and Smṛṭi digests which played a vital role in the religious and social life of India. The Brāhmanical religious practices were deeply tinged with Tāntric colour. The mystic syllables, maṇḍalas (circles), yantras (diagrams) and mudrās (postures of hands) were incorporated into the traditional modes of worship as indispensable elements. It appears that Tantra began to wield its influence on Purāṇas from the eighth century onward. In several Smṛṭi digests, there are many references to Tantras, and quotations of Tāntric verses, mantras, etc. According to the Kulāṇṇava-tantra there was predominance of Śruti (=Veda), Smṛṭi and Purāṇa respectively in the Ages called Satya, Tretā and Dvāpara; in the present Kali Age Tantra predominates. The predominance of Tantra in Kali has been stated also in the Mahānirvāṇa-tantra (i.28).

The influence of Tantra is most marked on Buddhism. The deep influence on this religion led to the rise of Buddhist Sahajiyā cult which, in its turn, was responsible for the growth of Vaisnava Sahajiyā cult. As stated above, the Jainas, too, had their Tantra.

The basic unity of the apparently different popular cults like Bauddha Sahajiyā and Vaiṣṇava Sahajiyā, etc., is that all of them aim at the attainment of Supreme bliss caused by Sādhanā performed by man and woman in conjunction. According to these faiths, two separate currents combine to give rise to one principle, the advaya-tattva, which is complete bliss. This is mithuna-tattva, yāmala-tattva or yugala-tattva, the





yuganaddha-tattva of the Buddhists. This advaya-tattva, according to Tantra, is pure bliss caused by the union of two currents represented by Siva and Sakti. This state of supreme bliss is attainable by Tāntric Sādhanā which consists in Yogic practices. According to the Bauddha Sahajiyās, too, Yogic practices are necessary to reach the goal which they call Mahāsukha. But, in place of Yoga, the Vaiṣṇavas substituted love (prema).

Tantra is valuable in other respects too. Some Tantric works mention rivers, lakes, hills, forests, pithasthānas, etc. Thus, their geographical importance is undoubted.

Some Tantras mention names of gurus. Of them, the gurus of the Mānavaugha category (e.g. Nīlatantra V.65, 66; Śyāmārahasya iii. 241-44; Mahāvidyātantra, Tārākhanda 164-169, Nityotsava, Ullāsas iii, V appear to have been people of flesh and blood. Moreover, they represent different traditions. The Pārānanda-sūtra mentions the names of six Tantric teachers, and cites three.

Articles of food and drink, recommended for offering to the deities, appear to reflect the food-habits of the people.

Some Tantras reveal the ethical outlook of the people and their moral ideas. Thus, they throw light on the ways of life of the people in the periods concerned.

Some Tantras, particularly those related to Kashmir Śaivism, contain highly philosophical ideas. They have some value for the history of Indian philosophy.

Biographical or autobiographical information about the authors is very meagre in Sanskrit works. Happily for us, some Tantric works, both original and commentaries, contain information about their authors, their dates and patrons, etc. In this connexion, mention may be made of Rāghavabhaṭṭa, author of a gloss on the Śāradātilaka, Śāktapramoda of king Rājanandana, Tantrapradīpa of Gadādhara, Mantrapradīpa of Harapati, Pāṇatoṣinī of Rāmatoṣaṇa, Sarvānandataraṅginī of Śivanātha, Ṣaṭcakranirūpaṇa of Nandarāma and Tārābhakti-sudhārnava of Narasimha Thakkura.

From the point of view of history of Sanskrit literature, Tantra is valuable. Some Tantras refer to such works as are lost. Again, a particular Tantra, mentioning a work, 77 about which we know nothing, throws some light on the relative chronology of the two.

We know of at least one Tantra, entitled Vidyārņava (Calcutta Asiatic Soc. Cat., VIII, Serial No. 6206), which is important for



political history. It gives an account of the foundation of the town of Vijaynagar, which is different from all accounts found in several modern works on Vijaynagar.

The work is stated to have been composed at the request of a King of Vijaynagar, the posthumous son of Praudhadeva. The author states that, after the death of Praudhadeva, he acted as regent according to the wishes of the people. As regent, he is stated to have built the town of Vijaynagar resembling the mystic Śrlcakra.

The unnamed patron of the author is supposed by Gopinath Kaviraj, probably on the testimony of a MS. of the above work at Varanasi Sanskrit College (*Brahmasūtra-Acyutagranthamālā*, Varanasi, Intro., p. 54).

The historicity of the above account is doubted by some scholars (Calcatta Asiatic Soc. Cat. VIII. pt.2, Intro., p.XXV).

In the above work, there is a list of teachers of the school of Samkarācārya beginning with this great exponent of Advaitavāda and ending with the author himself who claims to have belonged to this school. This list, which is corroborated by a list occurring in the Kramottama (Calcutta Asiatic Soc. MS. Cat., VIII, Serial No. 6351-2), contians some names which are otherwise unknown.

Some Tantras, which are lost, exist only in Tibetan and Chinese translations. But for these translations, we would have been quite ignorant of a vast portion of the Tantric literature.

From at least one Tantra, viz. Bṛhad-gautamīya Tantra, we learn of the different regions of India, in which Tāntric religion developed, and Tantras were composed. It states that the Tāntric preceptors of the West (perhaps Kashmir) are the best, those of the South medium and those of Gauda and Kāmarūpa are inferior, and the preceptors of Kalinga are the worst.

Śākta sect--- A General View

The worshippers of Sakti as the highest divinity are called Sakta.

Like Tantric works in general, Śakta śastra declares that the principal aim of a Śakta should be to realise his identity with Yantra, Mantra, Guru and Devi.

Like the followers of Tantra, the Śāktas also developed some practices which appear to be immoral to an impartial observer. For example, the *Kaulāvalīnirņaya* declares that all women, excepting the preceptor's wife and the wife of a Śākta of the Vīra type, are fit for



sexual intercourse. It allows (viii. 223-225) even incestuous sexual union.

A popular Śākta superstition is that jackals (Śivā) are Śakti incarnate.

Śāktavidyās (mantras) are divided into three classes, viz. Kādī (KA. 1, LA, HA, LA, HRĪM) Hādī (HA, SA, KA, HA, LA, HRĪM) and Sādī (SA, KA, HA, LA, HRĪM).79

Śāktas are broadly divided into two classes, Kālīkula and Srīkula'. Again, they are divided into three schoolds, viz. Kādi, Hādi and Kahādi.**

Śāktism reached a high degree of development in Bengal. The Śākta Tantras of this region regard Śakti as the pivot round which the entire Śākta philosophy revolves.

Sakti is both manifest (Vyakta) and unmanifest (avyakta). Everything from the principle of Mahat to the minutest atom is her creation. The main object of a $S\bar{a}kta$ is the realisation of the identity of Siva and IIva. ⁸¹

The idea of Sakti as the Supreme Power, perhaps, owes its origin to the matriarchal or mother superior system which prevailed in ancient India, and is found even now among some tribes. In this connection, it may be stated that, in the *Manu-smṛti* (ii.145) the mother is regarded as superior even to a thousand fathers in point of honour. It may be mentioned that, in Vedic mantras relating to marriage, the newly married woman is exhorted by the husband to be a samrājāi (Empress) in the household.

India was not the only country where matriarchy was firmly rooted over a wide area. Frazer thinks⁸² that it was widespread throughout Asia Minor. He points out that mother superiority lingered on in Egypt down to the Roman times (4th-5th cent.).

Ehrenfels thinks (Mother Right in India) that female domination in Indian society was wider and deeper than in any other country of the world.

In course of time, Śākta philosophy became subtle and complex. It recognises the 36 Tattvas which are as follows. Śiva, Śākti, Sadāśiva, Īśvara, Vidyā, Māyā, Avidyā, Kalā, Rāga, Kāla, Niyati, Jīva, Prakṛti, Manas, Buddhi, Ahaṃkāṛa, Pañca-tanmātra, Pañca-bhūta, Daśendriya.

In the philosophy, Siva is the Supreme principle. Though he is non-dualistic (Advaita), yet he is coupled with inherent Sakti. Sakti is the manifestation of Siva as the rays are of the sun, the burning power

of fire and the effulgence of a jewel.

Jiva is nothing but a part of Siva, but covered by kañcukas (cover of Māyā etc.) and mala (literally dirt: i.e. impurity causing rebirth and suffering).

Śakti resides in the body as kundalinī (a coiling serpent). Śākta-sādhanā aims at the redemption of Jīva from suffering and establishing him in everlasting bliss and consciousness.

Supreme Siva resides in the Sahasrāra lotus within head.

Kuṇḍalini, being awakened, rises from the mūlādhāra at the base moves upward, penetrates the Cakras and finally reaches Sahasrāra, abode of Śiva, and is united with Him. This union results in perfect and inexpressible bliss the experience of which is the summum bonum of the aspirant's spiritual life.

This philosophy advocates *Parināma-vāda* according to which the unmanifest Śakti Herself is evolved as the manifest objects. This is also called *Satkāryavāda*, i.e. the doctrine of the effect inhering the cause as the sprout pre-exists in the seed.

According to Vedānta philosophy, the world is unconscious illusion $(M\bar{a}y\bar{a})$, created by the conscious Brahman. According to Tāntric philosophy, $M\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ of the conscious Brahman is also conscious as there is identity of the Śaktimān (possessor of Śakti) and His Śakti.

The doctrine of Śakti-parināmavāda is also called Ābhāsavāda; it is the manifestation of objects by the conscious principle which itself remains unaffected.

An aspirant, endowed with *Divyabhāva*, which is stated as the best (sarva-bhāvottama), does not require an image nor any external rite. He is absorbed in *Antaryāga*. For him, pañcamakāra does not mean gross substances, but their spiritual forms, as indicated earlier.

A Sādhaka of Virabhāva has to perform external rites; he resorts to pañcamakāras in their gross forms. If necessary, he has to perform the six Tāntric black rites of Māraṇa, Uccāṭana, etc. He has to face severe tests. He practises sādhanā in a cemetery or other lonely spots. He is called vira (hero) as he has to be strong, fearless and self-restrained.

The worship of Śakti, also called Tripurā, Tripurasundarī or Mahātripurasundarī, who is identified with *Parā Saṃvit* (Supreme Consciousness) which again is conceived as Brahman, who is beyond the 36 *Tattvas*; it is twofold; *Antaryāga* stated above and *Bahiryāga* involving external rites.



The Goddess is worshipped in three forms, Sthūla, Sūkṣma and Parā. In the first form, she has anthropomorphic features, and is accessible to the eyes and hands of those who have mantrasiddhi.

The second one, consisting in *mantra*, is comprehended by the ears and speech of the holy persons.

The third form is comprehended by the mind of holy devotees. In external worship, differnt symbols of the Goddess are worshipped. Of these, the Śrīyantra or Śrīcakra is the best.

Sakti-sādhanā aims at the elevation of man from animality to a spiritual height through the restrained enjoyment of worldly pleasures and not by their denial. Irrespective of caste or sex, everybody has a right to practise this sādhanā while living the worldly life and not renouncing it.

Protestantism in Tantra

It is interesting to note that at least one Tantra raised a voice of protest against the conventional Tantric practices.

A fragmentary Pārānanda-mata or Pārānanda-matasamgraha⁸³ forbids nyāsa and animal sacrifice which are generally regarded as essential for Śakti-worship.

Tantra Beyond India

Though the place of origin of Tantra is not known with certainty, we find its influence far beyond India. We have seen, in connexion with the classification of Tantra, that many other neighbouring countries reveal their familiarity with Tantras. China and Tibet deserve special mention is this connexion. It should be noted that some Sanskrit Tantras are preserved only in Chinese and Tibetan versions, the original works being lost. We have evidences of these two countries having been visited by Tantric philosophers and scholars from ancient India. How deep Tantric influence was in Tibet can be understood from the life of the famous votary of Tantra, Milarepa⁸⁴ (born 1052 A.D.). We are informed of the severe ordeals he had to pass through before the achievement of the highest result of Tantric Sadhana. We come to learn that his preceptor was Mārpā whose preceptor was Nāropā.85 We know of at least four Tantras, viz. Śiraścheda, Vināśikha, Sammoha and Nayottara, introduced into Kambuja (Cambodia) about 800 A.D. Mongolia and Japan are some of the other regions where Tantra was introduced. Of the Tantric work, Ganapati-tattva, an old Javanese text only

is available.

Among the nearest neighbours of India, Nepal appears to have been very much influenced by Indian Tantra. The Durbar library of Nepal preserves the Niḥśvāsa-tattva-saṃhitā, written in the Gupta script of the eighth century A.D. The original work may date back to the sixth or seventh century.

The same library preserves a manuscript of the Jayadrathayāmala. In this connexion, it may be noted that the Caryāpadas, dating back to about thousand years ago and regarded as the earliest Bengali work, which are deeply imbued with Tantrism, were discovered in Nepal.

Buddhism was not the only medium through which Tantra migrated outside India. Through Brahmanical media also some Tantras found their way beyond this country. Nearly 1200 years ago, during the reign of Jayavarman II, the Brahmanical Tantras, Śiraścheda (i.e. Jayadratha-Yāmala), Nayottara, Vinayaśila (acc. to some, supplement to Jayadratha-Yāmala) and Sammoha, all included in Śivāgama, were taken to Cambodia.

From Chinese accounts we learn that the worship of several Mother Goddesses, e.g. Mahākālī, Mahiṣamardiņī, etc. was introduced in Asiatic countries beyond India.

Tantra and Timaeus⁸⁶

Tantra contains certain striking similarities with the Timee (*Timaeus*) of Plato (428-348 B.C.).

Among the vessels, Plato speaks of two conduits existing on both sides of the vertebral column. These, like the Tantric Ida and Pingala on two sides of the Suṣumna, seem to be fanciful things and not anatomic realities.

Again Plato conceives the earth as a cube, fire as a triangular pyramid, air as octahedral and water as icosahedral. In Tantra, these are represented by *maṇḍalas* (diagrams) which are square, triangle, two equilateral triangles, one upon the other, crescent moon; either is represented by a circle.⁸⁷

The above parallelism might be accidental coincidence. The possibility of the one country influencing the other cannot, however, be absolutely ruled out. It should be borne in mind that cultural contact between India and Greece dates back to a period earlier than the invasion of Alexander (327-26 B.C.).



Tantra and the Jews

The Jewish doctrine of Kabbalah has many similarities with Tantric ideas. Like Tantra, the adherents of this doctrine believe in the power of letters, magic, amulets, the unity of microcosm and macrocosm, etc. These ideas were in vogue in Egypt about the ninth century, and from there migrated to Europe. There are evidences of Indo-Egyptian contacts from long before the above date. So, in all probability the Kabbalah was influenced by Tantra via Egypt.

Tantra and Christianity

C. Eliot points out²⁵ some parallelisms between Tantric and Christian rituals. He has drawn our attention to the fact that, even in the Anglican Church, an indispensable part of the ceremony of baptism is sprinkling with water; this practice is similar to Tantric Abhiseka. The cross of the Christians resembles the nyāsa of Tantra as Woodroffe points out.²⁹ Baptism includes a formula which is similar to Tantric mantras. It is supposed that baptism ensures life in heaven but, the unbaptised have a dubious future. Similarly, Tantra believes in the attainment of the spiritual end through physical means. In the Roman Church, the rite includes exorcism and the use of salt, oil and lights. This is very much like similar practices in Tantra. The bread and wine, offered in an Eucharistic sacrifice, are regarded as the flesh and blood of Christ. The Christians eat this bread and drink the wine. In Tantric rites, meat and wine are essential.

Though the suggestion of parallelism is ingenious, yet no plausible case of borrowing on either side can be made out. The parallelisms are superficial, and appear to be accidental.

Degeneration and Denunciation

Orthodox Hindus deprecate Täntric practices. In his Tantravārtika, Kumārilabhaṭṭa (c. eighth century A.D.) clearly brands Tantra as outside the pale of Vedic religion. The principal reason of this aversion towards Tantra is that it voiced a protest against the rigours of Brāhmanical religious practices. Again, Tantra allowed greater freedom in religious matters to women and Śūdras who were denied many privileges enjoyed by men of upper classes. Another reason of the anti-Tantra attitude is probably that, contrary to the orthodox religion, it prescribes rites calculated to do harm to others and even destroy them. The Mīmāṃsā definition of dharma is codanālakṣaṇóratho dharmaḥ. It



has been explained as that which, based on Vedic authority, is designed to produce well-being. This outlook on dharma naturally led to contempt towards Tantra. Kullūka says — vedapramāņkam śreyaḥ sādhanam dharmaḥ. As some Tāntric practices are deliberately designed to do harm to others, Tantra was looked down upon.

It should be noted that a time came when people cared more for the Tantric practices than for the philosophical and spiritual aspects of Tantra literature. The result was moral degeneration. Tantra prescribed easier modes of $s\bar{a}dhan\bar{a}$. In doing so, it allowed the satisfaction of natural human propensities as means of progress in the path to liberation. Human nature being what it is, this attitude of Tantra gave human beings a licence for self-indulgence. In fact, some late Tantras themselves appear to encourage the satisfaction of carnal instincts. The Kaulāvali-nirṇaya (iv. 15 ff.) openly declares that, for Śāktas, there is no greater happiness than sexual enjoyment; by resorting to this practice alone one can attain Siddhi. The Tantra allows free sexual intercourse with the wives of others, excepting the guru, and of a Śākta who has acquired the status of Vīra. The Kālivilāsa-tantra permits indiscriminate sexual intercourse on the part of a Śākta. The drinking of wine is also stated to lead to enjoyment and liberation.

The degenerated Tantric religion gave rise to such sects as Kartabhaja in Bengal. Guruvāda, according to which the human guru was regarded as an incarnation of Siva, went to such an extreme that a newly married girl had to allow herself to be enjoyed by the guru before her first meeting with the husband.

In the wake of the renaissance in the 19th century, as a result of the impact of western education, and the dawning of enlightenment, the rationally disposed people vehemently denounced Tantric practices. Western stalwarts like Wilson, Monier Williams, Hopkins, etc. also looked down upon Tantras as debased and barbarous. Barth detested a left-handed Śākta as a 'hypocrite and a superstitious debauchee'.

The famous litterateur, Bankim Chattopadhyay, found only lust and liquour in the Tantric religion.

From an impartial observation it can be said that the Tantras doubtlessly contain highly philosophical matters. But, in actual practice, degeneration set in. With the Sastric support, the baser instincts of the Tantric devotees came into full play, and they became extroverts. While such degeneration is, of course, detestable the criticism, levelled against Tantra as a Sastra is not wholly fair. It is not the fault of the





Ganges if its water is used for washing unclean things. Similarly, if some people use Tantras as a means of satisfying animal passions, the Tantra literature in general cannot be categorically denounced.

Some highly intellectual men of India and even of the west not only admired Tantra, but also took to the Tantric way of life. Sibchandra Vidyārṇava (1860-1913) was a prominent Bengali who mastered the Tantric philosophy. Justice Woodroffe (1865-1936) became his disciple, and made original contributions to Tantric philosophy.

Despite the deprecatory attitude of the orthodox Brāhmins towards Tantra, we have seen how this Śāstra influenced almost all the cultural aspects of Indian society. Most of the Hindu Tantras were written by the Brahmins.

Literary Value of Bengal Tantra

Though the Tantras are mainly concerned with rites and rituals and philosophy, yet gems of poetry flash here and there. We quote some verses with their translation.

madhye tu tām mahādevīm sūryakoṭi-samaprabhavām/ chinnamastām kare vāme dhārayantīm svamastakam// prasāritamukhīm bhīmām lelihānāgra-jihvikām/ pibantīm raudhirīm dhārām nijakaṇṭha-vinirgatām//

Tantrasāra (Kṛṣṇananda)

[(I salute) that great goddess, Chinnamasta, who, the terrible one, has effulgence like that of a crore of suns, holds her own head in her left hand, extends her face with the licking tip of her tongue, drinking the stream of blood flowing out of her own throat.]

An excellent realistic description of the fierce Chinna-mastă, couched in apposite words.

pāpa-sūla-vīnirbhinnam siktam vişaya-sarpiṣā/
rāga-dveṣānalaiḥ pakvam mṛtyur-aśnāti mānavam//
Śāktānanda-taraṅgīṇī (I)

[Death devours man who is pierced by the spear of sin, wetted by the clarified butter of objects of senses, and cooked by the fire of attachment and animosity.]

NOTES

1. According to the Saktimangalatantra, it is supposed that these regions were named after the vehicles used to traverse them. Visnu.



- ratha and aśva mean respectively sea-going vessel, chariot and horse; gaja denotes elephant.
- 2. See Tāntric Texts Vol. I, ed. A. Avalon, Introduction, pp. ii-iv. The Saundarya-lahari, attributed by some to Śamkarācārya, refers to 64 Tantras. On the number of Tantras, see D.N. Bose, Tantras their philosophy etc., Saundarya-lahari (trs., pp. 117-20), P.C. Bagchi, Studies in Tantras, p. 5; Abhinavagupta, Tantrāloka (i. 18); Nityāṣḍaśikārṇava (part of Vāmakeśvaratantra) I. 13-22; Kaulāvalīnīrṇaya (I.2-14).
- 3. Vide P.C. Bagchi, Studies in Tantras, p. 3.
- 4. Buddhist Tantras are generally divided according to the three broad divisions of later Buddhism, viz. Vajrayāna, Sahajayāna and Kālacakrayāna. There are sectarian divisions of Jaina Tantra too.
- 5. cf. brahmpadme pṛthivyāṃ tu vartante mānuṣādayaḥlevaṃ cakre sarvadehe bhuvanāni caturdaśalpratidehaṃ pareśāni brahmāṇ-daṃ nātra saṃśayaḥl/ Nirvāṇa-tantra. (In the earth, the Brahma-padma, human beings etc. exist. Thus in the Cakras in the entire body fourteen worlds (reside). O Supreme Goddess, every body is a cosmos (Lit. the egg of Brahma). There is no doubt about it.
- 6. cf. brahmande ye gunah santi te tisthanti kalevare.
- 7. In the Atharvaveda, perhaps for the first time, the body has been stated as having eight Cakras, nine doors; it is imagined as containing a golden cell, the heaven covered with lustre. cf. aṣṭācakrā navadvārā devānām purayodhyā tasyām hiranmayah kośah svargo jyotisāvrṭah// x.2.
- 8. See Woodroffe, Sakti and Sakta (3rd. ed.), p. 399.
- 9. The word 'paśu' is derived from the root paś (to bind).
- 10. It generally denotes various hand-poses used in religious rites; e.g. $K\bar{u}rmamudr\bar{a}$, $Matsyamudr\bar{a}$, etc. In the Yoginitantra (Chap. vi.), it appears to stand for corns like barley which can be chewed.
- Gop Kṛṣṇa, in his Biological Basis of Religion and Genius, discussed the scientific basis of Kuṇḍalinī. Also see introduction by Weizsacker.
- 12. Sārdha-trivalayākārā, svayambyu-linga-veṣṭitā. Sarparājñī (serpent-queen) of the Rgveda seems to be the precusor of it.
- 13. cf. For instance, deva eva yajed devam nādevo devamarcayet/ Gandharva-tantra.
- 14. See Glossary.



15. cf. akṛtvā mānasaṃ yāgaṃ na kuryād vahirarcanam/ antaḥpūjāṃ vinā devi vāhyapūjā vṛthā bhavet/ Sanatkumāra-tantra.

Without doing mental sacrifice, do not perform external worship. O Goddess, without internal worship external worship becomes futile.

Sarvāsu vāhyapūjāsu antaḥpūjā vidhtyate/Bhūtasuddhitantra. In all external forms of worship, internal worship is prescribed. manasāpi mahādevyai naivedyam diyate yadi/ yo naro bhaktisaṃyukto dirghāyuḥ sa sukhī bhavet/ Gandharva-tantra.

The man who, with devotion, offers eatables to the Great goddess even mentally, becomes long-lived and happy.

- 16. Ullāsa vi.
- 17. For details, see Woodroffe: Introduction to Tantrasāstra, 1952, (pp. 134-35).
- 18. Vide Śāradātilaka, Chap. (i) and Śāktānandatarangini, Chap. i.
- 19. The word occurs, for the first time, perhaps in the *Rgveda*, Book VII- Vāsvi su te jaritre astu sāktiḥ.
- 20. See Kubjikātantra, Paṭala i.
- 21. Vide Śāradātilaka, Chap. i.
- 22. See Kubjikātantra, Chap. i.
- 23. cf. saccidānandarūpām brahmaivāham sphuratprabham Yoginītantra, I, Chap. x.

I am none but Brahman in the form of Sat (Existent), Cit., (Conciousness) and Ananda (Bliss, Joy), One whose lustre shrines.

- 24. cf. mātasvat-paramarūpam tanna jānāti kascana Sāktānanda-tarangiņi, Chap. iii.
 - O Mother, nobody knows your Supreme Form.
- 25. cf. amūrtau cit sthiro na śyāt tato mūrtim vicintayet/
 Consciousness does not become fixed on the formless; so contemplate an image.
- 26. The ignorant critics denounced the followers of this ācāra in the following manner:

àntaḥsāktā vahiḥ saivāḥ sabhāyāṭṇ vaiṣṇavā matāḥ/
nānārupadharāh kaulā vicaranti mahītale//

The Kaulas roam the earth asssuming many guises — they are inwardly $S\bar{a}itas$, outwardly Saivas, and regarded as Vaiṣṇavas in the assembly.

27. On the qualifications of a guru, see Tantrasara, Chap. i.

28. About its many varieties and sub-varieties, see G. Kaviraj, Tantric Sādhanā O Sidhānta, I, pp.149 ff.

The significance of dīkṣā is stated in the following verse:

dīyate jñānasadbhāvaḥ kṣiyate paśuvāsanā/
dānakṣapaṇasaṃyuktā dikṣā teneha kirtitā//

By it one is given knowledge and one's animality is destroyed.

- 29. GOS ed., pp. 1-3,13.
- 30. Also see section on Brahmana, Upanisad and Tantra.
- 31. See S.A. Dange, Sex in Stone and the Vedic Mithuna, ABORI, Diamond Jubilee Vol., pp. 546ff., 350.
- 32. Vide A. Avalon: Principles of Tantra, p. 41.
- 33. cf. ātharvaņam copaveda-stantrarūpah sa eva hi/ Śukranītisāra iv. 3.39.
- 34. Catvāri vak parimitā padāni manuşya vadanti.
- 35. R.C. Hazra, Studies in Puranic Records, etc. Chap. V.
- 36. Also see Tantra and Vedanta.
- 37. Tantric Vidya is divided into three groups, Kadi, Hadi and Sadi.
- 38. See P.V. Kane, History of Dharmasastra, Vol. V.
- 39. Also see section on Brāhmaņa, Upaniṣad and Tantra.
- 40. In some later Tantras, dualism is recognised; e.g. *Mṛgendra-tantra*, ii.11.
- 41. Iśvarāsiddheh Sāmkhyasūtra, i.92.
- 42. See B. Bhattacharya, Sādhanamālā, Intro.
- 43. e.g. Padma-purāṇa, Pātāla (ed. K.N. Bhaktivinoda), Ch. 38.
- 44. Ujjavala-nilamaņi, section on Rādhā.
- 45. See Jīva's Laghubhāgavatāmṛta and his commentary on the Brahmasaṃhitā as well as Kṛṣṇadāsa's Caitanya-caritāmṛta, Ādi, Ch. iv. The verse is —

 devī kṛṣṇamayī proktā rādhikā parā devatā/
 sarva-lakṣmīmayī sarvakānitḥ sammohinī parā//
 Goddess Rādhikā made of Kṛṣṇa possessed of all grace, all lustre
 - Goddess Rādhikā, made of Kṛṣṇa, possessed of all grace, all lustre, the Supreme enchanter, is said to be the supreme Divinity.
- 46. See S.B. Das Gupta, Śrīrādhār Kramavikāś, p. 332.
- 47. cf., for instance, Bhāgavata, xi, 3.47; 5.28, 31 etc.
- 48. Ubhābhyām veda-tantrābhyām mahyantūbhaya-siddhaye.
- 49. See D. Desai, Erotic Sculpture of India.
- 50. See Cunningham, Archeological Survey Report, IX.
- 51. See Tantrayana Art.
- 52. See Tantrayāna Art; Rawlinson, Tantra; Nawab, Jain Paintings, Vol. I.

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- 53. See N.K. Bose, Canons of Orissan Architecture, pp. 92, 154.
- 54. See Prajnanananda, Bhāratīya saṃgīter Itihās, (in Bengali) I, pp.300ff.
- 55. According to some, it is the Hinduised form of Ka-me-kha, the name of a goddess worshipped by the Khāsi tribe in the form of Yoni (female organ). See N.N. Bhattacharyya, History of the Tantric Religion, p. 103.
- 56. See Vānglār Sādhanā by Kṣitimohan Sen, pp. 47-48.
- 57. gaude prakāsitā vidyā maithilaih prabalīkṛtā/ kvacit kvacin mahārāṣṭre gurjare pralayam gatā// Vide R.C. Chanda, Indo-Aryan Races, p. 153 f.n.
- 58. cf. vasistho brahmaputro' pi cirakālam susādhánam/
 jagāma cīnabhumau ca yatra buddhah pratistitah//
 (Even Vasistha, son of Brahman, attained good penance for a long time in the land of China where the Buddha is established.)
- 59. gaccha tvam bhārate varṣe adhikārāya sarvataḥ/
 piṭhopapītḥekṣetresmin kuru ṣṛṣṭimanekadhā//
 (You go to India for all-round possession. In this land, perform creation in many ways in Pīthas and sub-pīthas.
- 60. Vide N.N. Bhattacharyya, History of the Tantric Religion, pp. 87ff.
- 61. See Adonis Attis Osiris, pp.34-35.
- 62. Ency. of Rel. and Ethics., I.
- 63. See R.C. Hazra, The Devi-Purāṇa, Indian Antiquary, V. 1942-43.
- 64. R.D. Banerji, Pre-historic Ancient and Hindu India.
- 65. On this question, see Yādaveśvar Tarkaratna, Tantrer Prācīnatva, Sāhitya-saṃhitā (Journal), Āśvina, 1317 B.S.
- 66. The Nṛṣiṃha-tāpanīyopaniṣad, belonging to the Atharvaveda, is like a Tantra. Śaṃkarācārya wrote a commentary on it.
- 67. Vide Foote, Collection of Indian Prehistoric and Proto-historic Antiquities, Madras, 1916; K.R. Subramanian, Origin of Śaivism and its History in Tamil Land, Madras, 1929; P.T.S. Iyengar, Stone age in India, Madras University.
- 68. JASB, IV, p.628.
- 69. Ind. Ant., 1906, pp.277ff.
- 70. Ibid., 1906, pp. 274-76.
- 71. See B. Bhattacharya, Scientific Background of the Buddhist Tantras, IHQ, xxxii, No. 2, 3.

For the scientific basis of the Kundalini-yoga of Tantra, see G. Krishna, Biological basis of Religion and Genius and its introduction by Weizsacker.

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- 72. See Śabdakalpadruma under Tantra.
- 73. See Schrader's list.
- 74. Works of Bengal will be dealt with separately.
- 75. Sadhanamala, II, p. 505.
- 76. For Tantric influence on Puranas, see R.C. Hazra, Studies in Puranic Records, etc., p. 260. According to some, the Devimahatmya of the Markandeya-purana is only an epitome of Tantric physiology and cosmogony. Vide Pańckadi Vandyopadhyayer Racanavall, II, p. 298.
- 77. For influence of Tantra in the Far East, see P.C. Bagchi, Studies in Tantras; R.C. Majumder, Inscriptions of Kambuja and JRAS, 1950. Also see S.C. Banerji, Sanskrit Beyond India.
- 78. See P.C. Bagchi, Op. Cit., pp. 17-18; The Age of Imperial Kanauj, p. 321.
- 79. See Classification of Tantras.
- 80. Ibid.
- 81. This idea accords well with Śrī Aurobindo's following line " we are sons of God and must be even as He.

His human portion, we must divine." In Vedānta philosophy also, the realisation of the identity of jivātmā and paramātmā is the highest knowledge. In the famous oft-quoted line Śṛṇvantu viśve amṛtaṣya putrāḥ, the last two words are taken by some to denote human' beings who are regarded as the progeny of the Immortal One. Religion, according to a scholar, is the progressive realisation of the divinity in man.

- 82. Adonis, Attis, Osiris, pp. 394-95.
- 83. Calcutta Asiatic Society MS. No. 8476, Serial No. 5982 published in the Society's Journal, 1939, with a short summary of the contents in English.
- 84. See *The Life of Milarapa*, trs. from Tibetan into English by L.P. Lhalungpa.
- 85. "Of Indian, saint of the new esoteric order and King of Translators" *Ibid.*, p. 43. Naropa was, perhaps the Tibetan name or designation of the Indian saint concerned.
- 86. On this topic, see Filliozat, Classical Doctrine of Indian Medicine, pp. 234-35.
- 87. Vide A. Avalon, Tantric Texts, Vol. III.
- 88. Hinduism and Buddhism, II, p. 275.
- 89. Principles of Tantra, pp. Lxxi-Lxxvi.





II. Geographical Account of Bengal

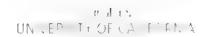
The subject of the present work is the contribution of Bengal to Tantra literature. So, before taking up the subject of study, it is necessary to define the geographical limits of Bengal through the ages. Bengal today is a truncated province. One should not think that Bengal had always its present boundaries. We shall deal with not only the political confines of this region, but also with its cultural boundaries; the culture of a place transcends its narrower political limits.

The Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (vii 17-18) contains the earliest reference to Puṇḍra; a portion of ancient Bengal was called Puṇḍravardhana-bhukti. The Aitareya Āraṇyaka, for the first time, mentions the tribe called Vaṅga. The Āryāvarta of Baudhāyana Dharmasūtra does not appear to have comprised the region known as Vaṅgadeśa. Manu's Brahmāvarta (ii 17) or Madhyadeśa (ii 21) did not include this portion of India. But, Manu's Āryāvarta (ii 22) appears to have comprised it.

Aryanised. This much, however, is certain that there was an interval of centuries between the settlement of the Aryans in north-western India and their conquest of Bengal which was inhabited by non-Aryan tribes. R. C. Majumdar infers that this region came under the control of the Aryans in the period between the sixth and the fourth century B.C. That Bengal had been beyond the pale of Aryan civilisation in ancient times is proved, inter alia, by a verse which ordains that a person visiting this land as also Anga, Kalinga, Saurāṣṭra and Magadha except for pilgrimage, is degraded requiring sacrament of refinement again. This verse has been current from very early times, though the exact time of its origin is unknown.

Greek and Latin sources are of special importance in determining the geography of ancient Bengal. From their accounts we learn that the major part of the present-day Bengal was known as Gangaridae. According to Ptolemy, it extended from the river Suvarnarekhä or Hooghly up to the Padmā. Pliny's testimony is that Pundravardhana was the capital of Gangaridae which, broadly speaking, comprised Vanga, Suhma and the stretch of the land called Pundra. The other places, included in ancient Bengal, were known as Samataṭa, Harikela, Karnasuvarna, Gauda, Varendra and Rādha.





The present West Bengal comprised Suhma, Rāḍha and Karṇasuvarṇa. Most of the modern Midnapore district was known as Suhma. The famous Tāmralipta (=modern Tamluk) was included in it. Rāḍha extended over the eastern portion of the above district and the district of Burdwan. Probably the river, Dāmodara, was the dividing line between north and south Rāḍha. Broadly speaking, the district of Mursidabad was called Karnasuvarna.

The present East Bengal (=Bangladesh) included Vanga,² Samatata and Harikela. In course of time, the land to the east of the Brahmaputra, comprising northwest Mymensing, Comilla, Tripura, Noakhali and, perhaps, even Chittagong, came to be included within Bengal. 'Vangaladeśa'3 used to denote the whole of East Bengal. The stretch of land to the south of Kamrup or Assam, the south-east of Karnasuvarna and to the east of Tamralipta was known as Samatata. According to some, the modern district of Faridpur in Bangladesh was named Samatata. Others, however, take it to stand for modern Dacca district. Some scholars are of the opinion that the present district of Twentyfour Parganas (North and South taken together) near the sea and the districts of Khulna and Bakharganj were comprised in Samatata. Harikela used to denote the region in the eastern boundary of Vangadeśa. The north Bengal of to-day was constituted by Pundra (or, Paundra or Paundra-vardhana), Varendra(I) and Gauda. The modern districts of Malda, Rangpur, Dinajpur, Rajshahi etc., and a part of Bogra were known as Pundra. Varendra and Gauda, though constituents of Pundravardhana, were also knwon as distinct entities by virtue of their superior culture and material resources. Varendra was constituted by the present Rajshahi Division and a part of Pabna district. A part of modern Malda district was called Gauda. Through centuries it had been regarded as a principal city of Bengal. For long it was known as Laksmanāvatī which, perhaps, originated from king Laksmanasena.

In the cultural history of Bengal, Bāgḍi and Bālavalabhi are well known. Bāgḍi is, perhaps, a corrupt form of Vyāghrataṭī which, according to historians, stood for the entire delta from the Ganges to the Brahmaputra. Modern Calcutta appears to have been a part of it. Bālavalabhi was, according to some, the name of a place in Nadīyā district, while others take it as the ancient name of Southern or Eastern Bengal.



In the twelfth century, Vanga generally used to refer to East Bengal. Later on it came to stand for the entire province. It was, perhaps, the Muslims who, for the first time, used the word 'Vengala" to denote the land in between the Ganges and the Brahmaputra, i.e. the fairly long stretch of land from Gadi in Bihar up to Chittagong. Gradually this name came to include also Bihar and Orissa which passed under Muslim rule.

In the beginning of the British rule, the entire land under East India Company, from the Vindhya Hill up to the Himālaya, from the Punjab to the estuary of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra constituted Bengal Presidency. The gradually conquered territories of Assam, Arakan and Pegu, etc., also came to be included in Bengal.

NOTES

- 1. anga-vanga-kalingeşu saurāstra-magadheşu cal tirthayātrām vinā gacchan punah samskāram arhatil/
- 2. For the significance of this word and its geographical limits, see B.C. Law, The Vangas (Indian Culture, I).
- 3. The word Vangala has been variously derived from vangapala Vanga-ala: ala or ali denotes the boundary of a field. The existence of many alis in this region is supposed to have given rise to this name. Sukumar Sen holds that the name Vangala originated in the early part of the Muslim conquest of Bengal. According to him, the process of evolution of the name Bengal is as follows:

French Vangālah — Portuguese Bengala — English Bengal. See *Itihāsa (Bengali Journal)*, ix l, pp. 17-20; R. Banerji, The Vangālas, *Indian Culture*, ii.

4. According to some, the Venetian traveller, Marco Polo, used (1298 A.D.) the word 'Vengala' for the first time. The fact seems to be that the Nesari plates (805 A.D.) mention Dharma (Dharmapāla) as the King of 'Vangāla' and the Tirumalai Inscription (1025 A.D.) refer to Govindacandra of 'Vangāla-deśa'.

III. Historical Background

The political and social conditions of a place go a long way in influencing the literary activities and religious practices of the people living there. So, before dealing with the contribution of Bengal to Tantra, we shall attempt a rapid survey of the political and social background against which Tantra arose in the province and was nurtured.

The materials for the reconstruction of the history of ancient Bengal are extremely scanty. From the Buddhist and Jaina works as well as from numismatic evidence it appears that, towards the middle of the sixth century B.C. independent principalities were established in Vanga and Rāḍha. Though sufficient evidence is not available for about the following two hundred years, yet it appears that the land was divided into some small States. In the first quarter of the fourth century B.C., a powerful State arose out of the union of lower and western Bengal; it was the Gangaridae of the Greeks.

According to tradition, it was a part of the Empire of Asoka. At the time of the Kushanas, the major part of it used to be ruled over by three agents. In course of time, these rulers shook off allegiance to the Kushanas, and became independent. Then followed a period of confusion and turmoil.

Simhavarman and his son Candravarman, mentioned in the Susunia Hill inscription (near Bankura), were probably rulers of Bengal when the Guptas came to power (319-20 A.D.). From the Allahabad Stone Pillar inscription, we learn that Samatata was a part of the kingdom of Samudragupta. Epigraphical evidence points to the inclusion also of North Bengal within the Gupta empire.

During the decline or disappearance of Gupta sway, Bengal appears to have been ruled over by independent rulers of whom Gopacandra, Dharmāditya and Samācāradeva are mentioned in copperplate grants.

Towards the middle of the sixth century A.D., Gauda gradually became a powerful State which attained its zenith under King Śaśāńka. In course of time, it grew to be an empire extending up to Kānyakubja in the west and Ganjam (Orissa) in the south. For a short period, Śaśāńka was deposed by Bhāskaravarmā, king of Kāmarūpa. But, Śaśāńka retrieved his position after Bhaskara's death in 650 A.D.



After Śaśānka, Bengal became a target of incursions by neighbouring States which were probably attracted by the fabulous wealth¹ of this region. In the eighth century, the then ruler of Bengal lost his life in a defensive battle for the friendly State of Magadha attacked by Yaśovarman, king of Kānyakubja. In the same century, another ruler of Bengal was slain by Lalitāditya, king of Kashmir. These are the factors which gave rise to chaos and confusion in Bengal.

After a long period of anarchy, the people of Bengal elected one, Gopāla, as their king. He founded the Pāla dynasty. The conditions, in which he was installed, are described in inscriptions and in the history of the Tibetan Tāranātha. The domain of Dharmapāla, successor of Gopāla, is stated to have extended from Kedar in the Himālaya up to Gokarņa in Bombay.

Devapāla, son of Dharmapāla, after successfully repulsing the inroads of Gurjaras, Rāṣṭrakūṭas and Kambujas, established his sway from the Himālaya down to the Vindhya. Kāmarūpa, too, acknowledged his suzerainty. There is evidence of his contacts with royal powers beyond India too. From the Nālandā copperplate grant we learn that Devapāla made a gift of five villages for the benefit of the monastery founded there by Bālaputra, king of Suvarṇadvipa.²

Devapāla was succeeded by Vigrahapāla who in turn was succeeded by Nārāyaṇapāla after whom the Pāla empire was attacked by the hill tribe, called Kamboja, which was repulsed by the next king Mahīpāla. At the time of Mahīpāla's accession, East Bengal was under the rule of the Candras and the Kambojas lingered on in the western and northern Bengal. Mahīpāla conquered not only east Bengal, but also annexed Tīrabhukti and the whole of Magadha. Towads the end of his rule, the Cedi King, Gāṅgeyadeva, attacked his territory and conquered Tīrabhukti. The Tamil king, Rājendracola, advanced through Orissa, and vanquished Mahīpāla in 1023 A.D.

Mahīpāla was succeeded by Nayapāla whose son and successor Vigrahapāla III was succeeded by Mahīpāla II whose weakness led to the revolt of the Kaivartas in north Bengal under the leadership of Divyoka. The king was slain, and Divyoka held north Bengal under his sway for sometime. His successor, Bhīma, was defeated by Rāmapāla who was the last noted Pāla king. The kings, who followed him, were weak and caused the decline and fall of the Pāla kingdom. Towards the end of the eleventh century, when the Pāla dynasty was on the wane, the Varman dynasty was founded in east Bengal, Harivarmadeva was



the most celebrated ruler of this race. Probably, in the first half of the twelfth century, Vijayasena of the Sena dynasty dealt the death-blow to this dynasty.

Taking advantage of the decline of the Pala regime, Vijayasena assumed power and founded the Sena dynasty in 1095 or 1125 A.D. His son and successor, Ballalasena, instead of trying to expand the kingdom, devoted himself to social reforms and literary activities. Ballala's son, Lakṣmaṇasena, with his capital at Nudiya, annexed Mithila and Gaya to the kingdom of Bengal. He was famous alike for heroism and patronage of learning.

In 1197 A.D. Bakhtiyar Khiiji, General of Kutbuddin, launched a surprise attack on the capital. The aged king fled to East Bengal where, even after his death, his descendants ruled independently for sometime.

Towards the close of Lakṣmaṇa's reign, Madhumathanadeva carved out an independent State on the eastern bank of the river Meghnä. In the first half of the thirteenth century, the kings of Deva dynasty ruled over that small State. The State of Paṭṭikera (within the modern district of Comilla), too, was perhaps, under their domination.

There were a few small States in Bengal no doubt. But, after the dethronement of Lakṣmaṇa, the sun of Hindu glory set for ever in the region. After usurping the throne Bakhtiyar struck heavy blows at the vital spots like Gauḍa, Varendra, etc. Ere long the whole of Bengal accepted his overlordship. But, Bakhtiyar paid a heavy penalty for what he grabbed by unfair means. He was slain by one Ali Mardān.

Anarchy ensued. During the period of sixty years, from 1227 to 1287, fifteen rulers in succession occupied the throne of Bengal. Of them, ten belonged to the Mamluk race which ruled over Delhi.

One, Tughral Khan, with the intention of establishing supreme suzerainty in Bengal, revolted against Giyasuddin Balban, the then Sultan of Delhi. The Sultan drove him off, and placed his own son, Bugrā Khan, on the coveted throne of Bengal.

The Mamluk rule in Bengal was supplanted by the Tughlak; Sultan Muhammad Tughlak annexed this State to his empire.

The Tughlak regime gave way to the Iliyas Shahi rule. At this time, an Arabian traveller visited Bengal. He has left us a dependable economic account of this province.

The fickle fortune of Bengal resorted to a Hindu ruler for a brief spell. He was Ganesa whose son was popularly known as Jitmal, Jaymal, Yadu or Yadusena. Yadu embraced Islam, reverted to Hinduism



and again became a Muslim. After his father's death, he occupied the throne of Bengal under the name of Jalaluddin. He probably died in 1431 A.D. Then the second series of Iliyas Shahi rulers came to power.

Towards the close of the fifteenth century, the royal fortune passed over to the Husain Shahi dynasty. It fell to the Afghans who ruled up to the last quarter of the sixteenth century.

The Afghan regime was supplanted by Mughal rule. Under the Mughals, their governors were virutally the rulers of Bengal. In the sixteenth century, the Portuguese visited Bengal for commercial purposes. Gradually, other European traders, viz. English, French and Dutch, were attracted to Bengal.

In the middle of the eighteenth century, Alivardi Khan declared himself as the Nawab of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. During his rule, Bengal was overrun by the Mārāṭhās. Their onslaught was popularly known as the menace of Bargis. The Nawab died in 1756.

He was succeeded by his daughter's son Sirājuddaulā. Under the doting care of his maternal grandfather, Sirāj became passionate, haughty and self-willed. He had no capacity for bearing the heavy burden of a kingdom. In the battle of Plassey, in 1757 A.D., due to the treacherous machinations of his General, Mir Jāfar, he was defeated by Lord Clive. While on the run, Sirāj was slain by Miran, son of Mir Jāfar.

Thus, the rod of the balance of the English trader turned into the sceptre of the ruler. Gradually the whole of India came under the imperial sway of the British.

We have seen the changing political canvas of Bengal through centuries. The society was also not static. We shall see the dynamism of Bengal in the spheres of manners, customs, religious practices, etc.

Bengal may or may not have developed a distinct culture before the advent of the Aryans. But, in the *Manusmrti*,³ we find that Vanga was an integral part of the land inhabited by the Aryans. Vanga is included among the famous *janapadas* mentioned in the *Rāmāyaṇa*. In the *Mahābhārata*,⁴ the bank of the river Karatoyā and Gangāsāgarasaṇgama,⁵ both in Bengal, are mentioned as holy places.

Even after the Aryanisation of Bengal, non-Aryan influence did not fully disappear in this region. Even to-day certain religious rites and Bengali vocables bear testimony to the fact that Bengal was the abode of non-Aryans. The Brāhmanical religion pervaded this region no doubt. In Bengal, we find evidence of the fact that the Aryans attracted



within their fold non-Aryans whose customs and rites they partly absorbed into their own and whom they initiated into their way of life. Indeed, this tendency of the followers of the Brahmanical religion lent viability to it through ages. In Bengal, the tribes Vanga, Suhma, Sabara, Pundra, etc., came to be treated as Kṣatriyas. As a result of the spread of the Aryan influence in Bengal, the Brahmins began to multiply. There is historical evidence of the existence of a very large number of Brahmins here in the fifth and sixth centuries A.D. and even earlier.

In course of time, the admixture of the principal castes led to the rise of the mixed ones called Karaṇa, Ambaṣṭha, etc.; it perhaps occurred towards the close of Hindu rule. In the Bṛhāddharma-purāṇa (c. thirteenth century), as many as forty-one non-Brahmin castes are designated as Śūdra. The Brahma-vaivarta-purāṇa, too, dating back to c. 7th or 8th Cent. A.D. in its original form and to about the 16th Cent. in its present form, presents almost a similar social picture. These two Purāṇas presumably represent the social condition of Bengal. The members of the main and mixed castes began to pursue fixed vocations. Gradually, do's and don'ts developed with regard to dining and drinking by the members of the higher and lower castes.

From the work of Bhavadeva Bhatta (c. eleventh-twelfth century) it seems that inter-caste dining and drinking had not yet been so severely condemned as in later times. It appears that, even as a result of eating rice from a Caṇḍala, a Brāhmaṇa did not lose his caste; expiatory rites, performed by him, were supposed to absolve him of sin. It is interesting to note that, contrary to the usual practice obtaining in other parts of Bengal, the Brahmins of this region used to eat fish and meat with impunity. Bhavadeva Bhatta, a great Smṛti writer of the pre-Raghunandana period, defends this practice. Bhavadeva, however, condemns the drinking of surā on the part of all.

Presumably due to their Buddhistic persuasion, the Pālas did not pay much attention to social reforms. There was a Brāhmanical revival with the advent of the Senas. Ballāla introduced Kulinism the main purpose of which was the creation of a class of Brahmins possessed of learning, modesty, good conduct, etc. But, it seems, even worthless Brahmins basking in the sunshine of royal favour, enjoyed the exalted status of Kulins. The evils of this system did not take long to manifest themselves. The worthless Kulins, vaunting their social status, were much in demand as bridegrooms. The result was polygamy, and the consequent neglect and ill-treatment of the wives by Kulins. From the



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Ballāla-carita it appears that a caste might be raised by the king to higher status or lowered to an inferior one.

From the Kulajis (genealogical works), whose testimony is not free from doubt, we learn that Adiśūra, king of Gauda, brought five Sāgnika⁶ Brahmins from Kānyakujba in order to resuscitate Vedic rites in Bengal. Gradually, they settled in Rādha and Varendra. Since the time of Ballāla, they are said to have been divided into two groups, Rādhī and Vārendra respectively.

In the wake of the invasion by the Turks, the Hindu society suffered reverses to a great extent. The invaders, besides demolishing temples and shrines, forcibly converted many Hindus to Islam. Their conversion, perhaps, had a fillip in the repression of the lower classes by the higher ones. The economic factor was also probably responsible to some extent. Many a conservative Hindu fled to Nepal, Kashmir, etc., in order to save their religion, honour and even life.

After the firm establishment of Muslim rule, some wise people set about saving the shattered Hindu culture. During the period between thirteenth and sixteenth century, many Smrti digests were composed to regulate the society. A noteworthy feature of this period is that some Muslim rulers extended their generous patronage to the cultivation of Sanskrit and Bengali literatures.

A varied picture is presented also by the religious scene of Bengal. We are in the dark about the religious condition before and immediately after the Aryanisation of Bengal. Considerable influence of Jainism in the second century B.C. is attested by the mention of the three sects of Tāmraliptika, Koṭivarṣīya and Puṇḍravardhanīya in the Jaina Kalpasūtra. A Pāhārpur copperplate grant testifies to the existence, in that region, of a Jain monastery in the fourth century A.D. or earlier. Hiuen Tsang, (630 A.D.) too, speaks of many Digambar Jains in the then Bengal.

Epigraphical and sculptural evidences bear out the considerable spread of Brāhmanism in Bengal. The society of this age reveals great influence of the Purāṇic religion and the Vaiṣṇava and Śaiva ways of worship.

The religious condition in the period between the end of the Gupta rule and the rise of the Pālas is not very clear.

From the mention of the Vămăcări sect in Rădha and Varendra, found in the *Devi-purāṇa* (c. seventh-eighth century), it seems that, in those times, Śakti-worship widely prevailed in Bengal. It should not be





presumed that the Palas introduced Buddhism in Bengal for the first time. It is true that their patronage helped the development and expansion of this religion. That Buddhism was an established religion in this region at the time of Aśoka is cetain. From stone inscriptions we learn that Bengal was one of the principal centres of Buddhism in the third century A.D. In the fifth century, Fa-hien saw twenty-two Buddhist monasteries in Tämralipta. Hiven Tsang attests deep influence of this religion in the seventh century. In this century, Stlabhadra, a scion of the royal family of Samatata, achieved great fame among the contemporary Buddhists, and became the supreme head of Nalanda University. Under the Palas, the Bengalis did not rest content by merely embracing Buddhism. They avidly studied Buddhist scriptures, and composed Buddhist works, especially Tantras. Their fame passed far beyond the confines of India. At the invitation of the king of Tibet, Atīśa Dīpamkara (980-1053 A.D.), the famous Buddhist scholar, went there in order to reform Tibetan Buddhism. Countless Buddhist images of this period, many Vihāras and volumes of Buddhist works, composed by Bengali authors, bear eloquent testimony to the wide prevalence of Buddhism in the Bengal of that age.

This province-wide diffusion of Buddhism gradually gave rise to the Buddhist Sahajiyā cult which, like flood-water, reached every nook and corner of this region. The Caryāpadas, the earliest specimens of Bengali language and literature, are the creation of Siddhācāryas, initiated to this religion. It should not be supposed, however, that there was a holiday of the Brāhmanical religion in this period. There are many references, in the copperplate grants of the Pālas, to Brahmins versed in the Veda, Vedānga, Mīmāṃsā, etc., and conversant with Vedic rites and rituals. Nārāyaṇapāla is known to have established a temple in honour of Śiva.

Numerous Sanskrit works, images of Hindu deities, inscriptions and coins, etc., are mute witnesses to the revival of the Brāhmanical religion during the post-Pāla period under the Senas of Vaiṣṇavite and Śaivite persuasions.

After the overthrow of the Senas, Hinduism suffered to a great extent. But, this religion of immearsurable vitality did not disappear even after the onslaughts of hostile people and unfavourable conditions. The age-old Hindu religion assumed a new garb, and was revitalised by Caitanya and Caitanyaism. This great preacher and reformer brought home to the people the utter hollowness of rigid rites and customs



without self-purification and love of humanity. He made bold to declare that even a devout Caṇḍāla, devoted to God, is the best of dvijas. The flood of devotion-cum-love, let loose by Caitanya, swept the soil of Bengal, and this vast land was filled with reverberations of Saṃkīrtana and rapturous rapport seized all classes of people, high and low. Even the acute logician was turned into an emotional devotee.

It was at this juncture that, due to influence of the Sahajiyā cult, in its dual grab of Vaiṣṇava and Bauddha, gripped the imagination of the people. The rigours of Brahmanical ritualism yielded place to the easier Tāntric practices. Tāntricism became so popular that Raghunandana, the famous social reformer and maker of many Smṛti digests, set the seal of his recognition on Tāntrika dīkṣā. This period saw the advent of the erudite Kṛṣṇānanda Āgamavāgiśa who wrote the essentials of Tantra and, thus, paved the way for the spread and practice of Tāntricism.

NOTES

- 1. Kalhana has mentioned, in the Rajataranglnl, the prosperity of the citizens of Paundravardhana.
- 2. Comprising modern Sumatra, Java, Borneo and Bali.
- 3. According to P.V. Kane, it assumed the present form in the period between 200 B.C. and 200 A.D.
- 4. According to Winternitz, the *Mahābhārata* perhaps assumed its present form about the fourth century A.D. and the *Rāmāyaṇa* had its present form a century or two earlier.
- 5. Also mentioned as a sacred place in the *Matsya-purāṇa* (22.11), *Viṣṇudharmasūtra* (85/28), *Padma-purāṇa* (1.39.4) and in the *Tīrthaprakāśa* portion of the *Vīramitrodaya*.
- 6. Those who preserve the fire at which their initiation to Vedic studies is performed, and subsequently perform rites with it.



IV. Tantric Texts of Bengal

We have seen the pervasive influence of Tantra on the social and religious life of Bengal. It is, therefore, natural that some Bengali scholars, among whom there were a few Sādhakas, engaged themselves in the writing of Tāntric works. These works can be broadly divided into two groups, Buddhist and Hindu. The early works of the former class are earlier than the earliest extant works of the latter. With regard to Buddhsit Tantras of Bengal, it should be observed that many of them exist only in their Tibetan and Chinese versions, the original Sanskrit works being lost to all intents and purposes. The earliest extant Hindu Tantra dates back to the fourteenth century A.D.

A noteworthy feature of Hindu Tantra of Bengal is that it belongs to $K\bar{a}likula$, while most of the Tantras of the other regions of India belong to $\hat{S}rikula$.

The followers of $K\bar{a}l\bar{i}kula$ have a monistic outlook. They believe in the identity of Sakti and Brahman in its threefold aspect of Sat (that which exists), Cit (consciousness) and $\bar{A}nanda$ (bliss). According to them, Sakti is not a separate entity as the $M\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ -vivarta of Brahman. They think that the Siva-Sakti concept is beyond dualism, it can be realised through experience.

The followers of Śrikula recognise the above threefold aspect of Śiva, and consider Śakti as Vimarśini or Śiva's natural vibrating power.

Another charcteristic of the Bengal school of Tantra is that it concerns itself more with the Karma Kāṇḍa of Tantra than with Jñānakāṇḍa. In other words, Bengal Tantra is ritualistic while Kashmirian Tantra is more philosophical and metaphysical. A study of the Tantras of Bengal reveals that many are shortcuts or epitomes as the Tantrasāra of Kṛṣṇānanda, and a larger number of works are of the nature of priestly manuals designed to facilitate the performance of Tāntric rites.

It is not known where Tantric works began to be composed in Bengal. Hindu Tantra of this province appears to have originated about the eighth century A.D. Tantric studies continued here down to the 19th century. Even in the early years of the present century Tantric manuals were written.

Hindu Tantra of Bengal breaks fresh ground in some respects, as our account of the Mahanirvana will reveal.



Buddhist Tantra—Kaulajñāna-nirņaya

Buddhist Tantra of Bengal appears to have originated as early as the first half of the seventh century A.D. As we shall see, many of the Buddhist Tantras of Bengal are lost, their translations only being preserved in Tibetan and Chinese. Of the extant Buddhist Sanskrit Tantric works, the earliest one dates back to the earlier half of the tenth century.

There are some marked differences between Hindu and Buddhist Tantras. The latter does not recognise Sakti or Saktism. Like the Hindus, the Buddhists also recognise one male principle and one female underlying everything. Instead of Siva-Sakti of Hindu Tantra, Bauddha Tantra recognises Upāya-Prajñā to which the same function of Siva-Sakti is attributed, but in a reverse order.

The Buddhists advocate the idea of $S\bar{u}nyat\bar{a}$ according to which one should not fix one's mind even on higher objects like deities. One must learn to live in a state of void in which there is neither space nor time.

Buddhist Tantra teaches the mantra Om manipadme Hum, not found in Hindu Tantra. Manipadma means 'jewel in the lotus' or 'male within the female organ', the state of completeness, energy infusing wisdom. Hum is the sound of power that forces the mantra into realisation. This energy is symbolised by an implement known as Vajra, a word occurring only in Buddhist Tantra.

Some Hindu Tantras try to show that they are based on the Veda and quote Vedic mantras. But, Buddhist Tantras generally do not look upon the Veda as authoritative. A few works, using some Vedic mantras, may have done so as a result of Brāhmanical intrusion.

While Hindu Tantra recognises Sakti and some other deities as real, some Buddhist Tantras, (e.g. $S\bar{a}dhanam\bar{a}l\bar{a}$), look upon gods as mere conceptual entities existing only in the mind of the worshippers.

Hindu Tantra makes much of *Kundalinī*, supposed to reside in *mūlādhāra* whence it rises through *Suṣumnā* up to the thousand-petalled lotus in the head. Buddhism rejects sensuous imagery. Buddhist Tantra, however, recognises the inner 'god' ascending the spinal column. It is represented in art by such female figures as red Dākinī.

Buddhist Tantra attaches little importance to the lowest lotus within the body, and is inclined to exclude that behind the genitals.

This Tantra recognises a set of energy-fields within the body. The set is located in five circles within a flat disc. Of these, four are at the



four directons, the fifth being at the centre. In each of these, there is a figure of the Buddha of a symbolic colour.

He meditates in sexual union with his wisdom, along with subsidiary figures. Wisdom is conceived as a female. This union is sometimes symbolised by a blue Buddha calmly seated in the sexual embrace of pure white wisdom. The entire process may also be symbolised in sets of yantras in which shades and colours, rather than human figures, are the medium.

Some features are, however, common to both the Hindu and Buddhist Tantras. Both have two aspects, one philosophical and the popular, the latter including magic, exorcism, etc.

Many Hindu Tantras are dialogues between Siva and Parvatī or Skanda or Bhairava, Buddhist Tantra often professes to quote the Buddha.

The emphasis on Guruvāda is common to both. The qualifications of guru and sisya are mostly similar.

The importance, attached to mantra, is similar in both. Mandala and $mudr\bar{a}$ play a prominent role in both the types.

Nyāsa is an important practice to Hindus as well as Buddhists. The accessories of yoga, called prāṇāyāma, dhyāna, etc., are by and large common to both.

Both recognise nerve-cycles (cakras) within the body. Hindu Tantra recognise six Cakras the penetration of which by Kundalini till it reaches Sahasrāra is regarded as the highest goal of sādhanā. Buddhist Tantra recognises three cakras corresponding to the three bodies of the Buddha, viz. Dharma, Sambhoga and Rūpa or Nirmāṇa. Corresponding to Sahasrāra, the Buddhists speak of Uṣṇiṣa kamala which symbolises the Buddha's Vajrakāya or Sahajakāya.

Corresponding to Ida and Pingala with Suşumna in between, mentioned in non-Buddhist Tantra, Buddhist Tantra speaks of two nerves, one on each side of the spinal cord; in between them is the one known as Sahaja or Avadhūtī.

As stated before, the Buddhist works do not recognise Kundalini. Instead, they mention a Female Energy having the force of fire and residing in the Nirmāṇacakra near the navel. It is known as Caṇḍālī which, being activated, ignites Dharma- and Sambhoga-cakras. Its upward march terminates in union with the Uṣṇīṣa-kamala, and like Kunḍalinī comes back to its original position. In both types of Tantra Siddhi is a subject of discussion.



The common topics, dealt with in Buddhist Tantra are: Nature of kula, Upāya (male principle) and Prājāā (female principle), Creation and Dissolution, Bindu, Kalā, Mokṣa or Nirvāṇa, Siddhi, Yoga, Sahajatattva.

Some Buddhist Tantras deify prominent personages of Buddhism.

Ganeśa, Sarasvatī and some other deities of the Brahmanical pantheon have got into Buddhism. Buddhist Tārā is different from her namesake in Hindu Tantra where she figures as a Vidyā or Śakti.

The Mahāyāna Buddhism, in order to have a wide popular appeal, absorbed popular cults and rituals. Thus, it was considerably influenced by Tantrism.

A type of Mahāyānic works is called *Dhāraṇī* (between 4th and 8th centuries A.D.) or protective spells. These are Tāntric in character.

The Prajnaparamitas emphasise the cult of the Female Principle.

The Bodhisattvabhūmi, besides mentioning many spells, deals with the significance of mystic syllables.

As regards Pañcamakāra, these were so common and popular that, despite the Buddha's unequivocal prohibition of adultery and the strict code of moral conduct, enforced in the Buddhist Sangha, Buddhist Tantra could not ignore it. Works like the Prajňopāya-viniścaya-siddhi go to the extent of prescribing indiscriminate sexual intercourse. Sex relations even with one's mother and sister are recommended in Tāntric works like Guhyasamāja.

The concept of Yuganaddha or Samarasa, god and goddess in union, a form by which the Buddha and Bodhisattvas are represented, shows the extent of the influence of general Tantric way of life on Buddhist Tantra.

First of all, we take up the Buddhist Tantras. Of the extant Buddhist Tantric works in Sanskrit, the most well-known, perhaps, is the Kaulajñāna-nirṇaya. In the work itself, we find the remark macchaghnapādāvatārita, i.e. revealed by Matsyendranātha who is identified by some with Lui Pā and is credited with some pieces in the Caryāgīti.² From this it seems that it was composed or compiled by some follower or followers of the school of Matsyendranātha. According to tradition, Matsyendra, also called Macchendra, Macchenda or Macchindra, Macchaghna, was the founder of the Kaula school. He is believed to have lived, in the earlier half of the tenth century, at Candradvīpa (=modern Sandvīp) in the Noākhāli district of Bānglādesh.



The work is divided into 24 sections (paṭalas). The principal subjects, dealt with in it, are meaning of 'Kula', practices prescribed by a Kaula (one versed in Kula), the principle called Akulavīra, relation of Śiva-Śakti, Bindu, Nāda, Kalā, Mokṣa, mode of worship, meditation, the principle of Sahaja, means of acquiring powers by which one can kill others and enjoy long life, denunciation of the prevailing Śāstric rites and the importance of Yoga, knowledge of tīrthas, characteristics of Dākinī and Yoginī.

A few of the topics, dealt with in it, will be briefly dwelt on below.

Nature of Kula

That state is called Kula in which the mind and sight unite, the independence of the senses is lost, man's own power becomes at one with Jīva and the sight is merged in the visual objects.³ Such an exposition of the term is rare in Hindu Tantras where the terms Kula, Kulācāra, Kulašāstra, etc., are frequently used. According to this school of thought, Kula and Śakti are identical. In fact, this meaning of Kula is intended in the term Kulakunḍalinī used in Tantra. In the Kaulajñāna-nirnaya, Kula and Akula are synonymous.⁴

Śiva-Śakti

Śakti is merged in Śiva, the latter in Kriyā (action). Through will or desire Kriyā loses itself in Jñāna (knowledge). The will-power is merged in Supreme Śiva⁵ into whom the phenomenal world is dissolved. Icchā, Jñāna and Kriyā — these three aspects of Śakti have been recognised. In it (xvii. 8,9a) Śiva and Śakti are stated to be inseparable like fire and smoke or tree and its shade. Śiva has been conceived as symbolised (liṅgātmaka) in a fourfold manner—Siddhiliṅga, Mānasaliṅga, Manoliṅga and Dehaliṅga.

Creation and Dissolution

Parama Siva is merged in Sakti. Creation proceeds from the varied external manifestations of Sakti. When these manifestations are inward, dissolution occurs. While describing this Yogic mode, it is stated that there are seven lower regions and seven upper. Kālāgni or the Sakti, called Rudra, resides in Mūlādhāra. Creation lasts so long as it is in the lower regions. Dissolution starts when it proceeds upwards.



Bindu, Nāda, Kalā

Bindu is the name of the creative energy of Supreme Siva who is inseparably associated with Supreme Sakti. From Bindu arises Nāda from which creation starts. Bindu is threefold; in it lie the germs of mātā (knower), māna (knowledge) and meya (object of knowledge). These three forces of Nāda, known as Kalā or Kāmakalā, are also collectively called Tripurasundarī.

Moksa (Liberation)

The stay of Kula or Śakti in the lower region is bhukti or bhoga (enjoyment, suffering) while its presence in the upper region constitutes mukti or liberation⁶ which is attainable by means of the proper knowledge of 'Haṃsa'. Haṃsa or Śiva is immanent, the cause of the universe and the giver of suffering and liberation. With the knowledge of Haṃsa, mind is possessed of a superhuman state in which it passes beyond sin and merit. By perceiving, within the body, Śiva of the Dehalinga type, mentioned above, and by acquiring the knowledge of his movement in the world man attains Śivahood, becomes himself liberated and liberates others.⁷

Siddhi or mystic mental power, as a means to liberation, has been discussed in the work. Some of the principal Siddhis, attainable by special mantras, are

- (i) Nigrahānugraha punishment and favour.
- (ii) Kramana power of getting into another body.
- (iii) Harana stealing, carrying off.
- (iv) Pratimājalpaņa making an image speak.
- (v) Ghaṭapāṣāṇa-sphoṭana causing cracks in pitchers and stones.

These are collectively called Pāśastobha. The other Siddhis are

- (i) Māraņa killing.
- (ii) Uccāṭana causing expulsion or mental agitation of the enemy.
- (iii) Stambhana rendering the efforts of the enemy abortive or causing paralysis to his body.
- (iv) Mohana causing delusion or bewildermemt in the enemy.
- (v) Santika appeasement of hostile deities.
- (vi) Paustika increasing physical vigour.
- (vii) Akṛṣṭi attracting others.
- (viii) Vasa controlling others.

The following powers and qualities are stated to be acquired by Yoga:

Popularity, freedom from disease, poetical ability, eloquence, hearing from afar, levitation, union with YoginIs, warding off physical infirmity, great speed, assuming many forms, causing motionlessness of the army, etc.

A peculiar practice, advocated for removing physical infirmity and ensuring long life, is this. By hathayoga one has to extend the tongue so as to drink the nectar exuded from the thousand-petalled lotus (sahasrārapadma). This process is stated to be capable of even leading to immortality.

Mode of Worship

The worship of symbols, made of stone, earth or metal, has been prohibited. The worship of $M\bar{a}nasalinga$, within the body, alone is ordained as a means of Siddhi. This $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is to be done by mental flowers and resin. Non-violence, control of the senses, kindness, absence of anger, meditation, knowledge, etc., constitute mental flowers. Siddhi and Moksa cannot be attained by the mode of worship prevailing among the people. Equanimity is to be practised by an aspirant after giving up passion, anger, pride and greed. There is no truth in the Sastras, current among the people, so that modes of worship, prescribed in these works, are to be abjured. In this work, greater stress has been laid on meditation than on external worship.

Sahaja

A circle within the body is called Sahaja. It is also called Vajra, and can be reached by means of Vajrayoga. When it is reached, the body becomes firm like thunder and free from decrepitude. In this condition, the mind, too, acquires equanimity. The Sahajiyā cult plays a prominent role in the Dohās attributed to Siddhācāryas.

A comparison of the Kaulajñāna-nirṇaya with Hindu and Buddhist Tantras reveals its greater connexion with the latter than the former. The term 'Vajra', used in it, is virtually absent in Hindu Tantra, whereas it has been frequently used in the Buddhist Tantra. The Siddhis, called Śāntika and Pauṣṭika, mentioned in the Kaulajñāna, are not generally mentioned in Hindu Tantra, but occur in the Buddhist works.



Other Works of Matsyendranatha

Besides the above work, ten other Tantric works are associated with Matsyendra and his school. These are

(i) Akulavīratantra, (ii) Akulāgamatantra, (iii) Kulānandatantra, (iv) Gorakṣaśataka, (v) Gorakṣabhujaṅga, (vi) Gorakṣasaḥasranāmastotra, (vii) Gorakṣasaḥhitā, (viii) Jñānakārīkā, (ix) Nityāhnika-tilaka, (x) Śrīkāmākhyā-guhyasiddhi.

Dohas

The Buddhist Siddhācāryas, who resorted to the modes of Sahajasiddhi, are credited with Dohās, compiled in the Caryagiti, referred to earlier. From the Tibetan Tanjur we learn that some of these Siddhācāryas wrote Tantric works in Sanskrit. To Kukkuripāda are attributed six works at least three of which appear to have dealt with Mahāmāyā. Ten works on Vairayāna are associated with the name of Sabari who is, perhaps, identical with Sabarisvara. To Sabrisvara are ascribed a few works on Sadhana relating to Vairayogini. Lui Pa. whose identity with the aforesaid Matsyendra is not free from doubt, is known to have written four works on Vairayana including the Abhisamayavibhanga. The Väyutattva-bhavanopadesa appears to have been written by Goraksa who may have been identical with Gorakṣanātha. To Jālandharipāda, who was perhaps the preceptor of Gopicand, are ascribed four Vajrayana works of which one is the Śuddhivajra-pradīpa, a commentary on Saroruhavajra's Hevajrasādhana. Ten Vajrayāna works are mentioned as written by Virūpa. In the Tibetan language are preserved four Vajrayāna works associated with the name of Tilopa or Tailikapada. About 25 Tantric works are ascribed to Saraha or Sarahapāda (=Rāhulabhadra).

OTHER BUDDHIST TANTRAS

Silabhadra

From the Tibetan Tanjur and Lāmā Tāranātha's history of Tibet, we learn about quite a number of other Buddhist Tantras by Bengali authors. Their Sanskrit originals are lost, and are preserved only in Tibetan versions and, in a very few cases, in Chinese. The Tanjur preserves translation of Āryabuddha-bhūmi-vyākhyāna of Śīlabhadra. Hiuen-Tsang testifies to his authorship of many works of which Chinese translation alone is available. Śīlabhadra appears to have been born in a Brahmin royal family of Samatata in Bengal. Initiated to



Buddhism at Nālandā, he was the principal \$\overline{Acarya}\$ and the head of that Mahāvihāra when Hiuen-Tsang visited it. The inmates of the \$Sangha\$ gave him the honorific title 'Saddharmanidhi'. The above Chinese traveller is stated to have studied \$Yogasāstra\$ under him. Śīlabhadra passed away about 654 A.D.

Śāntarakşita

Another prominent figure among the Buddhist authors of Bengal is Säntarakṣita who was at one time the principal Ācārya at Nālandā. He is known to have established a temple in Tibet in 749 A.D. According to S. C. Vidyābhūṣaṇa, he was a scion of the royal family of Jāhor which is held by Benoytosh Bhattacarya to have been the Tibetan form of Sābhār, a well-known place in East Bengal (Bānglādesh). According to Sarat Das, he was a resident of Gauḍa-Vaṅga. Born at Jāhor in 705 A.D., he died in Tibet in 762 A.D.

Besides the philosophical works, entitled *Tattva-samgraha* and *Tattva-siddhi*, he appears to have written several works mainly on Buddhist Tantra. These are available only in Tibetan translation.

Kumāravajra

According to Tibetan tradition, the Bengali Buddhist Kumāravajra, a contemporary of the Bengal King Mahīpāla and Nayapāla (c. end of tenth century and first half of the eleventh century), wrote the Tantric work entitled Cakrasambara-maṇḍala-vidhi-tattvāvatāra.

Divakaracandra

According to the *Tanjur*, Divākaracandra was a Bengali, a contemporary of king Nayapāla (c. first half of the eleventh century), and a disciple of Maitrīpā. The above Tibetan work contains translation of some Buddhist Tāntric works including the *Herukasādhana*.

letāri

Jetāri, a resident of Varendra and preceptor of the famous Atiša Dīpankara, was a scholar at Vikramašīla Vihāra at the time of king Mahīpāla. He appears to have written, besides three works on logic, eleven works on Vajrayāna-sādhanā which are preserved only in Tibetan rendering. According to Tāranātha, Jetāri was the author of one hundred works.



Atisa

The brightest star in the galaxy of Buddhist writers of Bengal is Atīša Dīpankara. He is known to have been born in the royal family of Gauda at Vikramaṇipura or Vikramapura in 980 A.D. or 982 according to some. Son of Kalyāṇa Śrī and Prabhāvatī, he was named Candragarbha. His preceptor, Śilarakṣita of Odantapuri Vihāra, by whom he was initiated to Buddhism at the age of 19, conferred on him the title of Dīpankara Śrījānana. In course of time, he became a monk, and having studied long under Candrakīrti in Survarṇadvīpa, travelled in Ceylon and went to Magadha. At the invitation of king Mahīpāla I, he took over as the principal Ācārya of Vikramašīla Vihāra. Subsequently, at the request of the then king of Tibet, he went (1042) to Tibet and effected the reformation of Buddhism there. He died there in 1053 or 1054 A.D. During his thirteen-year stay in Tibet, he is stated to have penned about 200 works of which many exist only in Tibetan versions in the Tanjur. Most of these woks deal with Vajrayāna-sādhanā.

Ratnakarasanti

Ratnākaraśānti, who was probably identical with Śānti to whom two Bengali songs are attributed, was born sometime in the tenth century. He is known to have written several Buddhist Tāntric works, besides two on Buddhist logic.

Abbayākaragupta

Abhayākaragupta appears to have been born in the latter half of eleventh century in a Kṣatriya family of Bengal. According to some, he was an Oriyā or a native of Bihar. According to the Tanjur, he worte about 20 works on Vajrayāna. Of these, at least four are available in original Sanskrit. Besides original works, he wrote a commentary, called Āmnāyamanjarī, on the Tantra called Śrīsampuṇa-tantrarāja. Another commentary by him is on the Buddhakapālātantra. The Vajrāvalināma Manḍalopāyikā is also attributed to him.

Prajñāvarman

Prajnāvarman, an Ācārya of the Kāpaṭyavihāra of Bengal, probably flourished sometime under the Pālas. Of the several works, written by him, two, viz. Višeṣastava-ṭīkā and Devātišaya-ṭīkā are Tāntric.



Minor Buddhist Writers

Besides the above writers on Buddhist Tantra, there are a few others who are supposed to have been Bengali and about whom no more dependable information is available than traditional accounts. The information, that can be gathered about them, is given below:

Names of authors in Devanagari alphabetical order

Author Kumāracandra	Work Ratnāvali comm. on Kṛṣṇayamāri-tantra. Also comm. on Śrīvajra-bhairava- tantra-pañjikā and another Tantra.(Only Tibetan versions	Personal history An Avadhūta of Vikramapuri Vihāra.
	available).	
Nagabodhi	13 Tantric works including Yamāri-siddha-cakra-sādhana, Āryanīlām-baradhara-vajrapāṇi-sādhana. (Available only in Tibetan translation).	A resident of Sivasera in Vangala-desa. He is said to have been a disciple of Nagarjuna and to have hailed from Uddiyana.
Putali or Puttali	Bodhicitta-vāyu- carana-bhāvanopāya (Only Tibetan rendering).	Said to have been a Śūdra of Bengal, and one of the 84 Mahā Siddhas.
Bodhibhadra	•	Of Somapuri Vihara. May be same as
Digitized by Goog	parivarta, Bodhisattva-sambara vidhi Yoga-lakṣaṇa- satya, Bodhisattva- sambara-viṃśati- pañjikā, Kāla-cakra- gaṇita-mukhādeśa, etc. (Only Tibetan versions).	tioned by Taranatha, No direct evidence of his belonging to Bengal. Original from
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Author	Work	Personal history
Mokṣākaragupta	?	Acārya of Jagaddala
		Vihāra.
Śubhākara	?	Preceptor of Śākya Śrībhadra, Ācārya of
		Jagaddala Vihāra.

HINDU TANTRA

Parivrā iakācārva

Mahāmahopādhyāya Parivrājakācārya is the earliest known Bengal writer on Hindu Tantra. We know practically nothing about his personal history; even his real name has been forgotten. A manuscript of his Kāmyayantroddhāra.13 the only Tantric work known to have been written by him, is dated 1297 Saka (=1375 A.D.). In the absence of other evidences, this date may be taken as the lower terminus of his lifetime. This work describes the diagrams used in Tantric rites.

Sarvananda

Sarvananda¹⁴ (born c. 1400 A.D.) is a prominent figure among the Tantric Sadhakas of Bengal. A resident of village Mehar in the district of Tripura under Bangladesh, he was the first Sadhaka of the famous Saktipitha of Mehär. Väsudeva, grandfather of Sarvänanda and a devotee of Mother Goddess, is said to have hailed from village Purvasthali in Burdwan district of West Bengal. Sarvānanda's father was Sambhunātha, According to tradition, Sarvānanda was originally illiterate. By the grace of the goddess, who was pleased with his Śavasādhana, he is said to have achieved Siddhi in 1425 A.D.15 and was endowed with supreme knowledge (parāvidyā). As he visualised all the different forms of the goddess, he is said to have earned the sobriquet Sarvavidya. His descendants have many disciples, M.M. Annadā Tarkacūdāmani is said to have belonged to this family. Even now a great festival is held at Mehār on the anniversary of Sarvānanda's acquisition of Siddhi. His son, Śivanātha, appears to have written his biography in the work entitled Sarvananda-tarangini.16 From it we learn that Sarvananda was born at Mehar when it was under the rule of a king (Zamindar) having the cognomen Dasa. It is said that, owing to maltreatment by the ruler of the place, Sarvananda left Mehar, and wandering at many places at last settled in the forest of Vijayatala on northern boundary of village Senhāti in the district of Jessore (now partly in Bangladesh) partly in West Bengal.

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It was here that he married Gauri Devi, daughter of Candracūda Tarkālankāra, Court Pandit of the ruler of Jessore.

Sarvānanda had two sons, Śivanātha and Śivānanda. At Senhāṭi he wrote the Sarvoltāsa.

Later in life he went to Varanasi where he spent the rest of his life. Here he faced much antagonism from Saiva Daṇḍi-svāmins who hated Sarvānanda's *Pañcatattva-sādhana*. Ultimately he settled at Sāradā Maṭh, established by Śaṃkarācarya. After a few years, he is said to have gone to Badarikāśrama (Badrinath) in Uttarpradesh.

The work, Sarvoltāsa, 17 is associated with his name. The Navāhnapüjā-paddhati in the Raghunātha temple of Kashmir and the Tripurārcana-dīpikā appear to have been composed by Vāsudeva or Sarvānanda. 18

The Sarvollāsa is a compilation dealing with Tantric Sādhana in general and Virasādhana in particular. As D. C. Bhattacharya writes in the introduction, only the two introductory verses and the chapter-headings are from the pen of the compiler. To these we may add the chapter colophons. The entire work is a collection of verses from different Tantras. From the Ullāsa-nirṇaya (determination of subjects under different chapters), it appears that the original work contained 64 chapters. But, the available manuscripts end in chapter 63. It is significant that, while the subjects under 63 chapters have been mentioned, no subject is stated under chapter 64; it is only stated that the work is completed in the sixty-fourth chapter (catuḥṣaṣtau samāptaśca). The tradition goes that the last chapter contained the manura by which the compiler attained Siddhi. So, it was kept back from the public. It is said that the last chapter had been taken away by himself when he renounced worldly life in order to settle as an Avadhūta at Vārāṇasī.

The topics under different chapters are briefly as follows:

- (1) Characteristics of Prakṛti, Nigama, Āgama; origin of Yāmaia, Śāstra, practice of Śāstra in different ages, construction of images, origin of Veda.
- (2) Enumeration of 64 Tantras.
- (3) Creation, Śyāmāstotra by Mahākāla, Sundarīstotra, Tārāstotra.
- (4) Creation a different account.
- (5) Determination of creation in another manner.
- (6) Account of laya.
- (7) Discussion on Bhava.
- (8) Threefold bhāvācāras, characteristics and worship of a Kumārī (virgin girl).

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- (9) Characteristics of bhāva, etc., cause of kaula-jñāna, paśvācāra, speaking ili of guru.
- (10) Characteristics of guru, dhyana of guru.
- (11) Same continued, 13 characteristics, Śānta, etc.
- (12) Vaisnava ācāra, prohibition of Sakti worship by Pasus.
- (13) Iṣṭabhakti, characteristics of Sādhakas, Sāttvikī, Rājasī and Tāmasī pūjās.
- (14) Animal sacrifice.
- (15) Šaiva ācāra, astānga yoga.
- (16) Characteristics of Vibhāva, Paśu, anukalpa of 5 Makāras, vibhāva Vīra, pañcatattva-pramāna, tilaka-pramāna.
- (17) On Yantra.
- (18) Śākta ācāra, vira-lakṣaṇa, virācāra, paśu-vira- lakṣaṇa.
- (19) Śādhaka, Cakra.
- (20) Śricakra, Cakreśvara, cakra-praveśa.
- (21) Śricakra continued.
- (22) Śripatra, pańcatattva and its result.
- (23) On ādya-tattva.
- (24) Kinds of dravya, Śakti-śudhi.
- (25) On madya.
- (26) Dhyana of Ananda Bhairava, Ananda Bhiravi, dravyasodhana.
- (27) On māmsa, matsya, mudrā.
- (28) Śakti.
- (29) Śakti-śuddhi.
- (30) On Samvida, mantra for drinking.
- (31) Pātrādhāra of Sādhaka in Śrīcakra.
- (32) Śricakra-sādhaka-pātra-sthāpana.
- (33) Vatukabali.
- (34) Result of anganyāsa, etc., prānāyāma; tarpaņa.
- (35) Pātra-svikāra.
- (36) Pāna-niyama, navamapātra-lakṣaṇa, guru, dhyāna, Prāṇāyāma, Japa.
- (37) Bāhya pūjā.
- (38) Patre madhudana.
- (39) *Kriḍā*.
- (40) Maithuna.
- (41) Pañcamānanda.
- (42) Anandarthi-sadhaka.
- (43) Daivānanda.

- (44) Maithuna, Yonistotra, Śricakra-pādodaka-māhātmya.
- (45) Ananda-stotra.
- (46) Abhiseka.
- (47) Daksinācāra-vira.
- (48) Vāmācāra.
- (49) Puspa-śodhana-mantra.
- (50) Kula-laksana.
- (51) Maithuna-lakṣaṇa.
- (52) Šakti-Jnāna, Vāmāpūjā-lakṣaṇa.
- (53) Siddhāntācāra.
- (54) Maithunānanda, caturvidha-bhuktyānanda.
- (55) Pūrņānanda.
- (56) Śaktyānanda.
- (57) Śakti-māhātmya.
- (58) Hamsa-bija-māhātmya.
- (59) Dhyāna-traya-māhātmya.
- (60) Divyācāra.
- (61) Kulācāra.
- (62) Prakrti.
- (63) Brahmajñāna.

Krsnānanda (Agamavāgiša Bhattacārya)

A native of Navadvipa, he was undoubtedly the brightest luminary in the firmament of Bengal Tantra. He was, indeed, one of the triumvirate that built up the massive cultural edifice of medieval Bengal, the other two having been Raghunandana, the great Smrti writer, and Raghunātha, the master of Navya-nyāya of the Bengal school. Had there been no other Tantra writer in Bengal, this province might be justifiably proud of Krsnananda alone. He is generally supposed to have been a contemporary of Caitanya, the renowned religious reformer of Bengal. Some scholars are of the opinion that Krsnananda flourished a little later than Caitanya. According to D. C. Bhattacharya,19 he was born round about 1500 A.D. From the evidence, contained in Kulajis, whose testimony is not universally accepted, the aforesaid scholar concludes that Krsnananda was the seventh lineal descendant of a certain sage who was a Varendra Brahmana with the family title of Ojhā. Bhattacharya holds20 that Rāmatosana, author of the Pranatosini, was the seventh lineal descendant of Krsnananda.

Kṛṣṇānanda's father was Maheśvara and teacher Vāsudeva Sārvabhauma who was also his spiritual preceptor.



The Tantrasāra²¹, compiled by Kṛṣṇānanda probably about 1580 A.D.,²² is a renowned treatise. The most noteworthy feature of the work is that it contains the essence of the Tantra works of all the sects, viz. Śaiva, Śākta, Vaiṣṇava, Saura, Gāṇapatya, etc. This accounts for its wide popularity. A comparison of the manuscripts, some of which are fairly old, with the vulgate text reveals that the original text has undergone many changes.²³ No attempt has as yet been made to reconstitute the text in the original or near-original form. The oldest manuscript, available so far, is dated Śaka 1554(=1632 A.D.).

The Vangavāsī edition of the work contains three chapters followed by some matters under the heading Atha Prakaraṇam. This portion is followed by certain matters concluded by the remark iti tantrasāraḥ samāptaḥ. After this there are certain mantras, hymns, procedural matters, etc.

This massive digest deals with all the important topics of Tantra, e.g. dikṣā, modes of worship, homa, kulācāra, Yantra, maṇḍala, cakra, etc. It contains also hymns addressed to several deities. It quotes passages from Tāntric works, both original and digests; of these works, some are known merely by name. Kṛṣṇānanda is credited with the conception, for the first time, of the Kālī image current in Bengal. He is also believed to have introduced the worship of this goddess in this province. Manuscripts of this work are written in several scripts besides Bengali; this fact attests its recognition far beyond the confines of Bengal.

Of the topics, dealt with in it, the noteworthy ones are briefly described below. According to the Tantrārṇava, quoted by Kṛṣṇānanda, the derivative meaning of the term 'guru' is as follows: ga ensures siddhi, u indicates Sambhu and ra removes sin. So guru is one who is Siva himself and destroys sin; he is the greatest of all. Alternatively, ga indicates knowledge and giver of prosperity, u confers Sivahood and ra burns off sin. So, guru is one who is the dispenser of knowledge, prosperity and the state of Siva, and removes sin. Another meaning, suggested in it, is this: gu stands for darkness and ru is destroyer of darkness. So, guru is one who dispels darkness; here darkness is, of course, the darkness of delusion, ignorance. A guru has the following characteristics: calm, highborn, polite, having a pure dress, of pure conduct, of established reputation, dexterous, possessed of a salutary motive, belonging to an āśrama, i.e. one of the four stages of life, given to meditation, versed in Tantra and mantra, capable of rewarding and



punishing the disciple. He deserves greater respect than one's father.²⁵ Doomed to perdition is one who looks upon guru as a human being. The following physical and mental features are condemned in a guru; afflicted with leucoderma or leprosy, having bad nails, discoloured teeth, deformity having a limb more or less than usual, garrulous, gluttonous, effeminate, sonless, uncouth, wicked, devoid of the prescribed rites and duties.

A disciple should have the following qualities: calm, polite, respectful, of pure conduct, self-restrained, etc.

Those, who are devoid of right conduct, foolish, irreverent, attached to objects of sense or adulterous, are not worthy of mantras.

Tantric $diks\bar{a}$ is looked upon as indispensable. It is stated that one, not initiated to Tantra, is doomed to hell and that japa, $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, etc., performed by him, become futile. One has to receive mantra from the guru. If one learns it from some work, without the help of the guru, he will have no deliverance even after thousand Manvantaras.

The etymological meaning of the word 'mantra' has been given as follows — mananāt trāyate yasmāt tasmān mantraḥ prakīrtitaḥ; mantra is that by meditating on which one is liberated. Women and Śūdras are debarred from certain mantras, e.g. gāyatrī, oṃkāra and lakṣmīmantra (Śri).

Besides Tantric meditation, worship, etc., the work reflects popular beliefs and superstitions. There are also rites and customs calculated to ensure worldly happiness and security against evil forces. Kṛṣṇānanda deals, inter alia, with vasīkaraṇa (method of controlling others), vidveṣaṇa (causing enmity), uccāṭana (ruining an enemy), abhicāra (employment of magic spells for malevolent purposes), adarśana (art of remaining invisible), etc. Some of these are briefly described below.

For vasikarana, one has to meditate upon goddess Cāmundā, and to repeat the following mantra for a lakh times. Then homa is to be performed with ten thousand Palāśa flowers.

Cāmuņde jaya cāmuņde mohaya vasamānaya amukam svāhā.

Camunda has been described as having huge teeth, fierce look and four hands. In her right hands there are a *khatvānga* (a staff with a skull at the top) and *khadga* (sword). In her left hands, there are a $p\bar{a}sa$ (noose) and *naramunda* (a human head). She has dark complexion and tawny hair. Clad in tiger-skin, she is seated on a corpse. She lives in dense darkness.



In order to create enmity between two persons, their names are to be written with a mixture of the dung of buffaloes and horses and cows' urine. Several other methods are prescribed for this purpose. The names of the intended persons are to be written, with the blood of a buffalo and a horse, on a piece of cloth obtained at a cremation ground. The names of the persons intended are to be written in a circle (cakra) with six angles (kona). The following mantra should also be written there:

om namo mahābhairavāya śmaśānavāsine amukāmukayor vidveşam kuru kuru hum phat/

With the following mantra one has to perform homa with neem leaves and katutaila in fire kindled with Khadira wood and in fire from the cremation ground. Homa for ten thousand times is to be performed with sesamum, javā flowers and ātapa rice. The mantra is this:

om namo bhagavati smasānakālike amukam vidveşaya vidveşaya hana hana paca paca matha matha hum phat svāhā/

The form of Kālī, to be meditated upon in this connexion, is as follows:

Possessed of complexion like the colour of *indranīla* (sapphire), blue like the sky, extremely fierce, defeating gods and demons, three-eyed, crying very loudly, decked with all ornaments, holding a human skull and a small sword, standing on the moon and the sun, surrounded by corpses and Bhairava, residing in a cremation ground, granting all success.

Besides offering various flowers, goats are to be sacrificed. After worshipping the deity, one should keep the *homa-bhasma* consecrated by *mantra*. The persons, on whom the ashes are thrown, will incur enmity.

To ensure the expulsion of a person from his native place, the following procedure is necessary. One has to write the mantra 'om namah kākatunḍi', along with the name of the enemy, on a neem leaf, with a pen made of a crow's wing and the mixture of the dung of buffaloes and horses. After performing worship on that leaf, homa should be done with the wood of a crow's nest from a neem tree. In the homa are also to be used narataila²⁶ or trikatu²⁷ and the wood of the plant dhustura mixed with the oil of white mustard. It is to be performed in the fire of a burning ghat. Then goddess Dhavalāmukhī is to be worshipped with five articles (pañcopacāra). Finally the worshipper, with his mind absorbed in dhyāna, should throw the ashes on the enemy's house. The description of the goddess is as follows:



Grey complexion, three eyes, emaciated, crescent moon on forehead, matted locks on head, wearing tiger skin, garland of bones in one hand, knife in the other, sunken eyes, fierce teeth and belly like the nether region.

The rite of abhicāra is briefly as follows. A goat is to be procured after worshipping, with khadgamantra, the sword addressing it with the following mantra — oṃ viruddhe rūpinī caṇḍike vairiṇam amukaṃ dehi dehi svāhā. The enemy is to be present in the form of the above goat which is to be addressed by the name of the enemy and told 'You indeed are that person'. After tying its face with a threefold piece of red thread, the life of the enemy is to be infused into it by mantra, and flowers are to be showered on its head reciting this mantra — ayaṃ sa vairī yo dveṣṭi tamimaṃ paśurūpiṇaṃ vināśaya mahādevi spheṃ spheṃ khādaya khādayā. Then one has to recite balimantra, worship the bali, consecrate it with the mantra āṃ hūṃ phaṭ, etc., and then sacrifice it. The blood and the head of the goat are to be offered to goddess Durgā with the mantra—etad rudhiraṃ durgāyai namaḥ. In conclusion, homa is to be performed with the flesh of the eight limbs of the goat.

The procedure for ensuring invisibility is as follows. In a Siva temple, five lights are to be kindled with human oil and placed on five human skulls. The wicks of the lights are to be made of ākanda, sālmali, kārpāsa, padmasūtra and paṭṭasūtra. Collyrium of five kinds is to be made with the flames of these five lights. The mixture of the different kinds of collyrium is to be applied on the eyes after reciting for 1008 times the following mantra—oṃ hūṃ phaṭ kālī mahākālī māṃsa-soṇitaṃ khādaya khādaya devimā paśyatu mānuṣeti hūṃ phaṭ svāhā. By so doing one becomes invisible even to gods.

Kṛṣṇānanda says that homa does not produce the full fruit without Kumāri-pūjā (worship of a virgin girl). Girls of the age-range of one to sixteen years are virgins. In each year of her age, a girl has a distinct appellation. For example, in the first year she is called Sandhyā, a two-year old girl is designated as Sarasvatī, and so on. On mahāpārvaṇs (days of certain great festivals), particularly on the Mahānavamī tithi (i.e. the day on which the Navamī Pūjā of Durgā is performed), Kumārī-pūjā is a must.

The Tantrasāra does not deal with Durgāpūjā as a distinct topic. It, however, incidentally lays down Durgā-mantra, Mahiṣamardinī-mantra, Durgā-śatanāma, Durgā-kavaca, Durgā-yantra, etc., and states the special efficacy of Kumāri-pūjā on the Mahānavamī day. From these the influence of Tantra on Durgāpūjā is obvious.



Besides descriptions of mandala, mudra, japa, homa, etc., there are some portions in Tantra, which are eminently readable and testify to the literary excellences, even poetic gifts, of the writers. In hymns to gods and goddesses, and the description of their imaginary forms we find soaring flights of imagination, graceful words, sonorous metres and the deft use of figures of speech. Parts of such hymns, compiled in the Tantrasāra, are quoted below:

Hymn to Ganesa

kṛtāṅgarāgaṃ navakuṅkumena mattālimālāṃ madapaṅka-lagnām/ nivārayantaṃ nijakarṇatālaiḥ ko vismaret putram anaṅgaśatroḥ// aṅke sthitāyā nijavallabhāyā mukhāmbujālokana-lolanetram/ smerānanābjaṃ madavaibhavena ruddhaṃ bhaje viśvavimohanaṃ tam//

hiranyavarnam jagadīśitāram kavim purānam ravimandalastham/ gajānanam yam pravadanti santastatkālayogais tamaham prapadye//

To Vișnu

samudrakāńci sariduttariyā vasundharā merukiritabhārā/ dantāgrato yena samuddhṛtā bhūstamādikolaṃ saraṇaṃ prapadye// sankhaṃ sucakraṃ sugadaṃ sarojaṃ dorbhir dadhānaṃ garudādhirūdham/

śrtvatsa-cihnam jagadādimūlam tamālanīlam hṛdi viṣṇumīḍe// kṣīrāmbudhau śeṣaviśeṣatalpe śayānamantaḥ smita-śobhi-vaktram/ utphulla-netrāmbujam ambudābham ādyam śrutīnāmasakṛt smarāmi//

To Gopāla

navīna-nīrada-syāmam nilendīvaralocanam/
vallavī-nandanam vande kṛṣṇām gopālarūpiṇam//
sphurad-varha-dalodbaddha-nīlakuncita-mūrdhajam/
kadamba-kusumodbaddha-vanamālā-vibhūṣitam//
gaṇḍa-maṇḍala-saṃsargi-calat-kāncana-kuṇḍalam/
sthūla-muktāphalodāra-hāra-dyotita-vakṣasam//
hemāngada-tulākoṭi kirīṭojjvala-vigraham/
manda-māruta-saṃkṣobha-valgitāmbara-sancayam//

The various forms of Kālī, described by Kṛṣṇānanda, are Dakṣṇā Kālī, Guhya Kālī, Bhadra Kālī, Śmaśāna Kālī, Mahā Kālī. These forms are briefly described below.

To Kṛṣṇānanda is ascribed also a commentary, called Śrītattvabodhinī.



Dakşinākālikā

Dishevelled hair, garland of human heads, face with long or projecting teeth (dantura), four arms, lower left hand holding a human head just severed, upper left hand holding a sword, lower right hand posed as giving a boon, the upper right hand posed as granting freedom from fear, deep dark complexion, naked, two corpses of arrows as ornaments in the two ears, girdle of hands of corpses, three eyes radiant like the morning sun, standing on the chest of Mahādeva (Śiva) lying like a corpse, surrounded by jackals, fierce face, yellow blood flowing from the lip-ends.

Another description is as follows:

Four arms, dark, garland of human heads, two right hands holding a sword and two blue lotuses, two left hands holding a $kartrk\bar{a}$ (small sword) and a human skull, garland of human heads on the head and neck, necklace of serpents on the chest, wearing a piece of black cloth, tiger-skin round the loins, left foot on the chest of a corpse and right foot on the back of a lion, represented as licking a corpse.

Guhyakālī

Deep black like a mass of clouds, wearing a black cloth, lolling tongue, sunken eyes, smiling face, fierce teeth, necklace of serpents, crescent moon on the forehead, one tuft of matted locks rubbing the sky, licking a corpse, sacred thread made of serpents, lying on a bed of serpents, garland of fify human heads, serpent Ananta with a thousand hoods on her head, surrounded by serpent-hoods, two hands with the serpents Takṣaka and Ananta as bangles on the left and the right respectively, girdle of serpents, Siva as a boy on the left side, two corpses as ornaments in the two ears, pleased face, decked with nine gems, served by sages like Nārada, terrible on account of loud laughter.

Bhadrakālī

Emaciated through hunger, sunken eyes, face ink-dark, dishevelled hair, crying and saying 'I am not satisfied, I shall make this entire world a single morsel', two hands holding two nooses like the flames of burning fire, teeth resembling black berries.

Śmaśānakāli

Dark like a mountain of collyrium, living in a cremation ground, red eyes, dishevelled hair, fierce with flesh dried up, tawny eyes, left



hand holding a vessel filled with wine and meat, right hand holding a human head just severed, smiling face, chewing raw meat, decked with various ornaments, naked, intoxicated with wine.

We have already stated that the *Tantrasāra* cites the authority of many Tantras and Tantra-writers. Of the editions of the work, none, ²⁸ excepting the Vangavāsī edition, cites either Pūrņānanda or any of his works. As we shall see, Pūrņānanda was a great Tāntric *Sādhaka* of Bengal having several Tantra works to his credit. The Vangavāsī edition mentions²⁹ Pūrṇānanda and his *Śrītattva-cintāmaṇi*. As a matter of fact, this mention is not a part of the text of the *Tantrasāra*; it is only a marginal note in one of the codices used in preparing the edition.

Amṛtānanda Bhairava and Rāmānanda Tirtha prepared revised versions of the *Tantrasāra*. The latter was a court-Paṇḍit of Kṛṣṇacandra, king of Nadiya, in the eighteenth century. Of the *Tantrasāra* of Rāmānanda, there is a complete manuscript in ten chapters in Asiatic Society, Calcutta. It should be stated that exactly the portion of the Śrītattvacintāmaṇi, stated above to be quoted in the Vaṅgavāsī edition of Kṛṣṇānanda's *Tantrasāra*, occurs at page 93 of the aforesaid work of Rāmānanda existing in Asiatic Society.

Brahmānanda Giri

Brahmānanda Giri, disciple of Tripurānanda, and spiritual guide of Purṇānanda, flourished probably in the early or middle part of the sixteenth century.

Two Tantric works, associated with his name, are Śāktānanda-taranginī and Tārārahasya.

The Śāktānanda-taraṅginī³⁰ consists of eighteen chapters called Ullāsas.

The first chapter deals exhaustively with the development of the foetus in the mother's womb. In the embryonic stage, a creature has memory of its previous birth and yearns after salvation. Everything is, however, forgotten with birth. The author speaks of happiness and sorrow in accordance with past action. The physical frame and life are said to be ephemeral. Nescience $(avidy\bar{a})$ has been mentioned as the cause of the bondage of rebirth. The cause of release is meditation on Mahāmāyā in the form of $Vidy\bar{a}$ (true knowledge). In this chapter, we find also an account of the condition after death. The body has been regarded as a microcosm.



The second chapter lays down the rules and the good effects of dikst (initiation), the time of initiation, characteristics and glory of the spiritual preceptor (guru). It deals also with the Samskara (refinement) of mantra.

The third chapter deals with the metaphysical subject of the twofold Brahman-saguna (with attributes) and nirguna (attributeless). For the steadiness of the mind of the worshipper, an image of the attributeless Brahman is conceived. It dwells on the great merit of dhyānayoga (meditation). The worshipper has been advised to identify himself with the object of his worship. Both bhukti (enjoyment) and mukti (liberation) are said to be obtainable through the meditation on Šakti.

The fourth chapter is devoted to daily duties—morning duty, washing face, bath, prayer. It again brings in guru who plays a great part in the spiritual life of a Tantric devotee. In this chapter, we have dhyana and stuti (eulogy) of the guru. This chapter describes the six circles (cakra) within the human body and the mode of yoga to be performed in them.

Chapter five deals with various kinds of seats, e.g. those made of Kuśa grass, and the different sitting postures like Padmāsana along with results accruing from them.

The following chapter lays down rules regarding antaryaga.

Chapter seven sets forth the procedural details about the worship of Sakti—purification of the place, sitting on a seat, manner of arranging the material for $P\bar{u}/\bar{a}$, placing of $S\bar{a}ntikunda$, purification of the seat, removal of bhūtas or ghosts (bhūtāpasārana), purification of bhūtas or elements of the body (bhūtaśuddhi), various nyāsas, prānāyāma, meditation, mental worship, invocation (avahana), worship of the deity, self-surrender, salutation and visarjana (bidding farewell, immersion).

In the eighth chapter, we find rules about rosaries for japa, karamālā (palm-rosary), number of rosaries of jewels, etc., suitable for particular rites, determination of the material of the rosary suitable for a particular deity, purification of rosaries, consecration of rosaries, determination of letters of the alphabet.

In the ninth chapter, we have rules regarding japa, description of the heart, eyes, etc., of mantras, determination of brahmarandhra, etc., as six sites of mantra, called sakala, niskala, sūksma, sakala-niskala, kalābhinna, kalātīta. The author deals also with the consciousness of mantras and the materials suitable for the beads to be used in japa.

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The tenth chapter seeks to determine the different kinds of mantras, viz. setu, mahāsetu and kullukā, in accordance with the different deities.

Chapter eleven deals with the different kinds of mantra for mukhasodhana (purification of the mouth) applicable in the cases of different deities.

The next chapter deals with the important Tantra rite called Puraścarana. It consists of the five devotional acts of japa, homa, tarpana, abhiṣeka and feeding of Brāhmaṇas. Incidentally, it speaks of the number and mode of application of japa, etc. The results accruing from the above five acts are reduced by 9/10 in each succeeding act; e.g. homa produces 1/10th effect of japa, tarpaṇa 1/10th of homa and so on. One, who is unable to perform any of these five acts, has to perform twice the usual japa. In this chapter are also laid down special rules for puraścarana on the occasion of lunar and solar eclipses.

Chapter fourteen enumerates the substances (upacāra) necessary for eighteen, sixteen, ten and five kinds of offerings to gods. It deals also with flowers permitted and prohibited for the worship of different deities, and lays down rules for the offering of the upacāras.

In chapter fifteen, we have rules about *kulācāra* and offerings to jackals. It contains the *nitya-samketa-stava*. We have also the declaration that particular kinds of *japa* expiate the sin arising from various acts of omission and commission. Finally, we have expiatory measures in the event of the destruction of the talisman (*kavaca*) held by a person.

The next chapter speaks of persons with whom association is prohibited. It contains expiatory rules in the event of the destruction of an established yantra, as well as of the spoiling of a yantra at the time of worship.

The following chapter gives rules for the construction of mandapa and kunda.

The last chapter lays down rules regarding kuśandikā and homa.

This work quotes over one hundred works on Smrti, Tantra, Purāṇa, etc., thus indicating the vast range of the study of the author.

The Tārārahasya,³¹ complete in four Patalas (sections), deals with the rites and customs relating to the worship of goddess Tārā and her various images. It contains also rules and regulations regarding initiation appropriate for Tārā worship. The main topics of this work are:



creation, morning duties, bath, daily prayer, mantra and gāyatrī relating to Ekajaṭā, Ugratārā and Nīlasarasvatī, Śivaliṅga-pūjā, antaryāga, yantras relating to threefold Tārā mentioned above, mahā-śaṃkhādi-mālā and saṃskāra thereof, homa, prāyaścitta for mantra-vismaraṇa, saṃskāra for pañcatattvas, pātrabandhanādirahasya, Tārā-pūjā-prayoga, trividha-ṣoḍhā-prakaraṇa, yoga-prakaraṇa.

Pūrņānanda Giri³²

Brahmānanda's disciple, Pūrņānanda, was known as Paramahaṃsa Parivrājaka. He had also the title of Yati. A native of village Kāṭihāli, under Netrakoṇā Subdivision of Mymensingh district in Bānglādesh, he was a Brāhmaṇa of Kasyapa gotra of the Rādhīya class. From his descendants we learn that he was son of Purandara, a devotee of Śakti, and Aparṇā. His real name was Jagadānanda. Pūrṇānanda was the name given by his preceptor. He was born in Śaka year 1423 (=1501 A.D.). He is famed to have been a devotee of a very high order. Until recently his descendants were held in high esteem in Bengal, particularly East Bengal.

Among his Bengali disciples, the most celebrated was Kṛṣṇānanda, author of the *Tantrasāra*.

Pürnānanda's seventh ancestor is said to have migrated, due to Muslim oppression, from Baranagar in Mursidabad district to the aforesaid village.

He is said to have gone to Kārnākhyā (Assam) where he achieved Siddhi by preaching Vīrācāra.

As a disciple of Brahmananda in Mursidabad, he was invited by the then king of Kashmir to mediate in disputes between the Śaivas and Śaktas in that region. He went there, and succeeded in bringing about rapprochement between the two sects.

In his later life, he is said to have gone to the Himalayas, and settled there.

The following are the works of Purnananda:

(i) Śyāmārahasya³³ — in sixteen chapters it describes the practices for the Kālī-worshipper. It is the most celebrated of his works. The important topics, dealt with by him, are as follows: mantroddhāra, morning duties, bath, daily prayer, tarpaṇa, nyāsa, etc., pūjāvidhi, stava and kavaca, purascaraṇa, various dhyānas and mantras relating to Kālī, Śmaśāna-kālī, etc., Kulācāra, Kundagolodbhava svayambhu-



kusuma-grahaṇādividhi, dūtiyāga, Śivābali, mantra-siddhi, Kāmyaprayoga, mahiṣa-mardinī-pūjā, vīra-sādhana, Kālistava and Kavaca.

- (ii) Śāktakrama (1571) in seven chapters (ullāsa), it deals with Śākta practices, etc. Composed in Śaka 1493 (=1571 A.D.)
 - (iii) Śrītattva-cintāmaņi (1577)34
- (iv) Tattvānanda-tarangiņi it deals with the well-known Tantric topics, bijoddhāra, mantroddhāra, etc.
- (v) Satkarmollāsa it deals mainly with the six magic rites of Tantra, āsana (postures) and kunda (receptacle of sacrifical fire).

He is said to have written the following works also: Yogacintāmaņi, Yogavilāsa, Kālīkakārakūṭa, Bhūtaśuddhi, Sarasvatītantra.

In the Bengali encyclopaedia, *Viśvakoṣa*, the following additional titles are attributed to Pürnänanda:

Kakārādi-kālī-sahasra-nāma, Kālikārahasya, Gadyavallarī, Satcakrabheda ot Şaṭcakrakrama, Subhagodara-darpana. 35

He is stated also to have commented upon the Satcakra-dīpikā of Brahmānanda. He is further credited with the authorship of the Kālikādi-sahasra-nāma-stutiratna-tīkā and Vāmakesvara-tantre Mahātripurasundarī-mantra-nāma-sahasra.

The Śritattva-cintāmaņi³⁶ of Pūrņānanda is an extensive metrical work on Tantra. It consists of 26 chapters called *Prakāśas*. The sixth chapter, called Ṣaṭcakra-nirūpaṇa, was so well known that it used to be regarded as a separate work; many manuscripts of this chapter are found at different places.

The author states the name of his guru as Paramahamsa Parivrājaka Brahmānanda. The date of composition is given as 1499 Saka (=1577 A.D.). The topics, dealt with in it, are as follows:

Brahma-svarūpa, Tattva-jñāna-pratibandha-karaņa, Śabda-brahma-svarūpa, Tattva-jñāna-svarūpa, Dīkṣā, Mantra-śabdārtha, Mantrāṇāṃ daśa-saṃskārāḥ, Vāstuyāga, Maṇḍapa-nirmāṇa, Ṣaṭcakra-nirūpaṇa, Kuṇḍa, Homa, Mantrabheda, Śakti, Śoḍaśīvidyā, Prātaḥkṛtya, Snāna-krama, Antaryāga, creation, Śrīcakra-svarūpa, Mudrā-svarūpa, Yantra-nirmāṇa, Saparyākrama, Tripurasundarī-stotra, Puraścaraṇa, Prāyaścitta, Jñāna-dūtiyāga, Tripurasundarī-vidyājīvana-prāptyupāya, Devatā-stava-pāṭha, Śrimahātripurasundarī-stotra, Mahāyantra-samskāra.

Some of the interesting matters are briefly stated below.

The author holds that the summum bonum is not possible without the body; so the body must be preserved before embarking on action (i.

8). The causes of loss of longevity are as follows:

acceptance of gifts from those who are averse to the duties of their caste and stage of life, lust for others' wives, greed for others' money, non-study of Vedas and other Sastras, deception of Guru, indulgence of the senses (i. 26-27).

Association of the good people and discrimination are like two eyes without which a man is blind (i. 30). The root of sorrow is attachment to the world; detachment is conducive to happiness (i. 32), as it leads to divya-jñāna (divine knowledge) and to the destruction of sin. Or, it is so called as, through it, the preceptor imparts the knowledge of God and mantras. Or, it is so called as it generates a divine feeling in this world full of illusion, and as it wears out action and leads to the acquisition of the fruits of the four ends of life (ii. 1-3).

Diksa is threefold:

(i) Śāmbhavī (ii. 16-17). In it there is no motive on the part of either the preceptor or the disciple: it leads to the manifestation of Sivahood in the disciple in whom the requisite Sakti has appeared.

In it the disciple is roused to a peculiar awareness merely at the sight of the guru or at his touch or speech alone.

- (ii) Sakteyi (ii. 14-15) In it, the disciple is initiated simply by the power seen in him; in it the usual formalities are absent. Others hold that it is that kind of diksā in which there is knowledge.
- (iii) Mantri (ii. 10-13) In it, a man perceives the desired deity according to the way of mantra. Then the preceptor teaches the disciple. Or, it is given by the guru according to Sastra, by the way of yoga, by means of mantra, pūjā and dhyāna. In it are used kunda, mandala, etc. It is called kriyāvatī (consisting of rites). According to others, it is so called because of the teaching of mantra. This diksa is stated to be suitable for all castes and to Saktas as well as Vaisnavas.

Salvation cannot be obtained by those who look upon their homes and forests as equal, give up shame and remain naked; because even asses, etc., act like this. By merely remaining unaffected by cold, heat, wind and looking upon eatables and uneatables as equal, salvation is not possible; because, even boars act in this way. It will not do if one merely lives on the banks of holy rivers from birth till death, because



even frogs and fish live in such places. For the highest goal, what is really necessary is direct knowledge of reality (sākṣāt tattva-jāāna).³⁷

The author states the views according to which mukti consists in the avoidance of infinite misery (ananta-duhkha-viraha)³⁶ or the destruction of thirst or hankering (tṛṣṇā-nāśa).³⁹ In his own opinion, mokṣa consists in the merger of the individual soul into the Supreme Soul (paramātman) which is of the form of a mass of bliss and is imperishable.⁴⁰

Jāāna, which alone is the cause of salvation, is twofold—arising out of discrimination (viveka) and arising out of scriptures (āgama).⁴¹ While Śabda-brahman is knowable by the latter, Param Brahman can be realised by the former.

Dīkṣā (initiation) has been stated to be conducive to the attainment of the four ends of life. The derivative meaning of dīkṣā is as follows: it is so called as it gives divine knowledge (divya jñāna) and destroys sin (pāpa-saṃkṣaya). Di of divya and kṣa of kṣaya appear to be supposed as constituting the word.

Considerable space has been devoted to the merits and demerits of guru and sisya, the manner of service to the former by the latter, the evil effects resulting from the disrespect and deception of guru.

Ablution is stated to be of two kinds—bāhya (external) and ābhyantara (internal). The latter consists in mental bath with the mūlamantra preceded by prāṇāyāma. Such a bath is said to yield the result of visiting a crore of holy places.

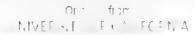
Chapter sixteen is devoted to antaryāga (internal sacrifice). Fifteen bhāva-puṣpas (flowers in the forms of bhāvas or feelings) are enumerated for internal worship which is praised as the best. These are:

absence of illusion, pridelessness, passionlessness, absence of conceit, absence of delusion, want of arrogance, absence of jealousy, absence of agitation, want of malice, greedlessness, restraint of the senses, kindness, forgiveness, knowledge and non-violence which is the best flower.

This chapter contains also the order of creation. Supreme Brahman—subtle, eternal and not perceptible to senses—was originally all alone. The watery portion having receded, desire of creation arose. After destruction was created a big bubble so that it might contain the worlds. That egg-like thing was to become twofold.

Atman has been stated to be fourfold—ātman, antarātman, paramātman and jāānātman. According to Pūrņānanda, the distinction





between jīvātman (individual soul) and paramātman (Supreme Soul) is only apparent. An analogy is used to show the oneness of the soul. The sky is actually one; but it looks differently in different pitchers in which diversity is caused by the difference in the potter's wheels with which these are made. So, the one soul appears as different in different individuals.

Antarātman is so called as the soul pervades the mobile and immobile objects inwardly. From paramātman proceeds creation in the following order: the five gross elements called sky, wind, fire, water, earth.

That, by which all is always known to be equal, is called *Jhanatman*; it is the witness of all beings (xvi. 115-117).

The derivative meaning of the term 'yantra' is as follows: it is formed by the combination of the roots yam and trai; it restrains all sins (yamayatyakhilam pāpam), and protects the sādhaka from great fear through worship and meditation (xvii. 2). Yantra is the body of the goddess, mantra being her knowledge (jāāna). Hers is not ordinary knowledge; it is akhandita or eternal.

The goddess has a threefold body, viz. bhautika (constituted by elements), manomaya (made of mind) and jñānamaya (consisting in knowledge). Mudrā is the first kind of body, yantra the second and mantra the third. The jñānamaya body is said to be superior to others, because it is eternal and imperishable.

Mudrā is so called because it delights the ātman and melts it which is tranquil and full of bliss.⁴²

The author gives details about the construction and worship of Śricakra which should be worshipped for the acquisition of prosperity, beautiful appearance, fame, sons, good health, etc. It is called Cakrarāja (king of cakras). The work takes its name from this Cakra which is thus looked upon as very important by the author. It should be noted that this Cakra is not included among the usual Cakras of Tantra.

The other additional *Cakras*, described by him, are nine divided into three classes:

- (i) Sṛṣṭi-cakra (representing creation) Trailokya-mohana, Sar-vasva-paripūraka, Sarva-saṃkṣobhaṇa.
- (ii) Sthiti-cakra (representing preservation) Sarva-saubhāgya-dāyaka, Sarvārtha-sādhaka, Sarva-rakṣākara.
- (iii) Saṃhāra (destruction) Sarva-roga-hara, Sarva-siddhi-prada, Sarvānandamaya,





The presiding deities of these *Cakras* are respectively Tripura, Tripureśvarī, Sundarī, Tripura-vāsinī, Tripurāśrī, Tripuramālinī, Tripurasiddhā, Tripurāmbikā, Mahātripurabhairavī.

Japa is threefold according to our author, viz:

- (i) Nigada with the movements of the tongue and lips.
- (ii) Upāmsu with the movement of the tongue alone.
- (iii) Mānasa mentally thinking of the letters of a mantra.

These three kinds are called respectively adhama (worst), madhyama (medium) and uttama (best).

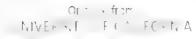
As regards the offer of wine to the goddess, the views of our author are as follows. He says that the pleasing (tarpaṇa) of the goddess is possible with three kinds of wine, viz. that distilled from honey, that fermented from rice and that made from molasses. A Brāhmaṇa should offer cow's milk, a Kṣatriya cow's milk and wine, a Vaiśya honey and a Śūdra flower-juice, etc. A Brāhmaṇa is clearly forbidden to offer wine to the great goddess (xviii, 574). A Brāhmaṇa, following Vāmācāra, is forbidden even to take meat and wine (xviii. 574). The author further provides that, wherever wine is ordained, a Brāhmaṇa should offer, as substitutes, cocoanut water in a vessel made of bell-metal and honey in a copper vessel. According to the Jñānārṇava, the things to be offered by the four castes in order are milk, ghee, honey and maireya.⁴³ (xviii. 578).

The author gives an elaborate procedure of *Purascarana*. It is so important that, without it, a *mantra* is as futile as a body devoid of life.

Chapter xxi opens with the expiation of sin arising from such offences as murder of a Brāhmaṇa. The means of atonement is the worship of the Cakra, 43 of all colours (?)46 and beautified with camphordust, in accordance with Kulācāra. By so doing for three months one is redeemed from grave sins even incurred in other births. Then the author dwells on the result obtained by the worship with different kinds of flowers (puṣpa).47 Sins are stated to be washed off by worship with Javā flowers, white lotuses, flowers called bandhūka, mallikā, campaka, etc. Also efficacious is worship with dūrvā grass, leaves of aśvattha, bel, etc. Neither Śākta worship nor Śaiva worship is possible without bel leaves. The following flowers are called Śākta or especially suitable for the worship of Śakti:

Kinds of lotus called ambhoja, utpala, bandujīva, vijaya, punnāga, nāga, jāti, kunda, kuraņṭha, campaka, javā, yūthī, ramā, pāṭala, aśoka, hayāri, kubja, madana, mandāra, droṇa, aparājitā.





Great merit is stated to accrue from the use of pearls and various gems and jewels, e.g. prabāla, marakata, padmarāga, hīraka, nīlakānta, gomeda, vaidūrya, etc.

Stale flowers are generally prohibited; but this does not apply to padma and campaka. Buds of all flowers, excepting the above two, are prohibited.

Certain flowers are condemned in certain seasons. For example, sephālikā and kahlāra are not to be used except in autumn. Some flowers are to be used with their stems, while others without them. For example, bakula and aśoka should be without stems; nāgakesara and javā should have stems.

Some flowers are specially recommended on certain days of the week. For instance, red lotus, water lily, tagara, kahlāra (white lotus) and lotuses in general are especially recommended respectively on the days commencing with Sunday.

The articles, to be offered in worship, on seven days beginning with Sunday are as follows in order— $p\bar{a}yasa$, milk, banana, butter, sugar and ghee.⁴⁸

Different results are stated to accrue from worship of the goddess at different places. viz. hill-top, forest, seashore, akṣadrumapiṭha, cremation ground and garden of areca-nuts. Different effects are produced by worship of the goddess at midnight at different places. viz. cremation ground, Caṇḍikā-temple, lonely forest.

Then the author lays down the ways and means of acquiring the following powers: $vet\bar{a}la-siddhi$, $tirodh\bar{a}na-siddhi$, $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}-siddhi$, $k\bar{a}mar\bar{u}pa-siddhi$ and $trik\bar{a}laj\bar{n}atva-siddhi$. For example, by worshipping the Cakra, imagined among the spokes of the six receptacles, with white sandal paste, musk, etc; one can know the past, present and future. By fixing prayers on the third eye of the goddess one can acquire the art of remaining invisible.

The author then deals with the worship of Cupid in spring. The chapter is concluded by rules for the worship of the goddess in the pūrņimā tithis of twelve months starting with Śrāvaṇa.

Chapter xxii is devoted to the sacrifice called *Jnānadūti*. The goddess has four aspects, viz. Hastinī, Śaṃkhinī, Citriņī and Padminī. Hastinī is identified with Vaikharī, Śaṃkhinī with Madhyamā, Citriņī with Paśyantī and Padmini with Parā.⁴⁹

In order to ensure learning in a man in future, within three days of his birth, a particular *mantra* should be written on his tongue with honey and white dūrvā grasses or a golden pencil.

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Chapter xxiii opens with the means of making Tripurasundarividyā effective. Incidentally are related some magical practices, both black and white. The following are included in white magic: power of being murder-proof, dear to the king, being like Cupid, destroying the effect of poison at sight, attracting goddess of prosperity, flying, becoming free from decrepitude and death, destroying all sins and of acquiring various siddhis, viz. Khadga. Vetāla, Guṭikānjana, Pudukānjana, Manaḥsiddhi, Mahāvīraṇa, etc.

In black magic are included vasīkaraņa, mahā-kṣobhakaraṇa, māraṇa, vidveṣaṇa, uccāṭana, stambhana, mahāhāni-karaṇa, satrunāṣa.

Chapter xxiv begins with the rules regarding the recitation of hymns to gods and goddesses. It is interesting to note that, while mental worship has been repeatedly stated as better than external worship, in the case of hymns audible recitation has been stated to be better than mental recitation.⁵¹

The topic of bali-dāna has been dealt with in considerable detail. The following animals are commended: Kinds of deer called Camara, Kṛṣṇasāra, fish, sheep, boar, buffalo, monkey and rhinoceros. Goats seem to be the best of all. Six kinds of goats are mentioned in this connexion, viz. white, black, red, tawny, variegated and pale white $(p\bar{a}ndara)$. The first two are best, the last two medium and the tawny and brindled ones worst.

A white goat with a black tail, a black goat with a white tail are to be avoided. Also to be avoided are the deformed animals. Female animals are excluded for the purpose of bali.

For bali birds of all colours and of good look are commended.

Satisfaction of divine beings from such offerings is stated to last for varying periods. The offerings, mentioned in this connexion, include, besides those mentioned above, human beings, tortoise, godhikā (a kind of lizard). Vānara of the previous list is excluded. The period of satisfaction, derived from human offerings, is stated to be the longest.

The 25th chapter contains the Sahasranāma-stotra of Mahātripura-sundarī.

The concluding chapter lays down rules about mahāyantra-saṃskāra,⁵² mudrā-māhātmya, establishment of deities, consecration of shrines, praise of cakra, condemnation of deceitful economy⁵³ (vitta-sāṭhya), warning against the deception of preceptors and gods, etc.



Pürṇānanda's work is important in more ways than one. Its historical importance is that he names his guru, and states the date of composition. As a Tāntric compilation, its merit lies in the fact that it is not a mere compilation. A considerable portion of it is the author's own composition. The work, unlike several other Tantras of Bengal, is not confined to mere Kālī-worship or rites and rituals; it contains much that is philosophical or metaphysical. The style is lucid and the presentation methodical. The author's poetic ability flashes here and there. The following verses may be quoted to show his metrical skill and command over language:

dasasatadala-padma-prollasat pürņacandre himaruci-rucirāngo haṃsapīṭhāntarasthaḥ/ abhaya-vara-karābjo yogapūrņo dvinetraḥ kula-kamala-vilāsī pātu māṃ devadevaḥ//

(Opening verse.)

hṛdaya-kamalamadhye prollasat-karṇikāntaḥ pramudita-śiva-śayyā — saṃsthitā kāpi mūrtiḥ/ suravara-hara-mauli-smera-muktā-pradhānapravilasita-padābjā pātu māṃ mohakūpāṭ// (i. 6)

na pîtam nāpītam nahi parimitam nāparimitam na raktam nāraktam nahi dhavalitam nādhavalitam/ nirākāram nityam triguņa-virahitam divyamajadam tamātmānam vande parama-sukha-santāna-nilayam// (1.7).

The Śyāmārahasya comprises nineteen chapters. The highlights of its contents are: Kulaguru, characteristics of Kuṇḍalinī, Antaryāga, Viṣayapuṣpa, Gurukrama, stavas, stotras and kavacas, Kulācāra, Samayācāra, mantraśuddhi without Puraścaraṇa, Cīnakrama, Śavasādhana, stages of Śakti-sādhanā, special japa, Siddhi, Ṣaṭkarma, prāyaścitta for incest including sexual intercourse with one's mother.

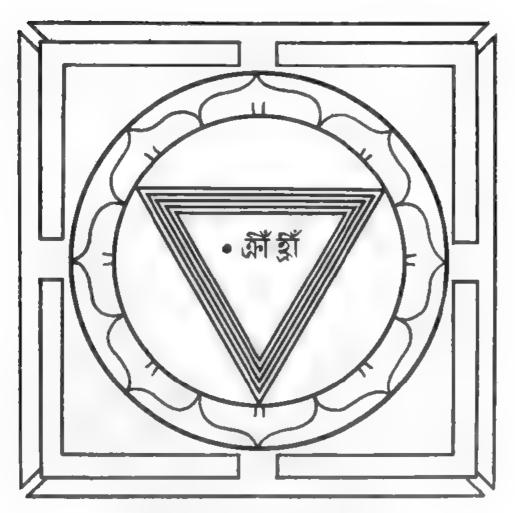
In ii. 22, worship with viṣayapuṣpa has been praised. Verses ii. 24-26 state the flowers as follows. Amāyā, Anahamkāra, Aśabda, Apada, Amoha, Adambha, the threefold causes of these, viz. the qualities of Sattva, Rajas and Tamas, Amātsarya, Alobha, Ahimsā, Indriyanigraha, Dayā, Ksamā, Jñāna.

Under gurukrama, the gurus of the Mānavaugha category may have been historical personages. The author calls them Kalikālagurus. It may be noted that, though some other Tantras mention both male and female gurus, this work mentions male ones' only.

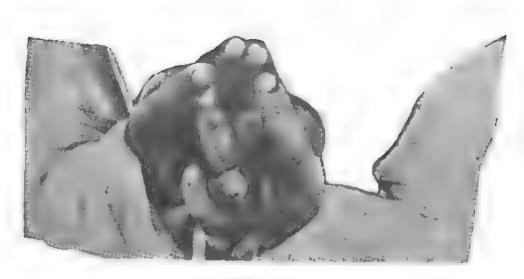




KUŅŅALINĪ



DAKŞIŅA-KĀLIKĀ YANTRA



YONI-MUDRĀ



SARVATOBHADRA MAŅDALA

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The work refers to over sixty Tantras besides referring to others as 'tantrantare', 'anyatra'.

It mentions the following authorities: Padmapādācārya (under iii. 78) and Rāghavabhaṭṭa (under iii. 165).

Śamkara

Another Tantra writer of Bengal is Śaṃkara with the qualifying epithet Gauḍīya. His real name was probably Śaṃkara Āgamācārya. He appears to have composed several Tāntric works. From the date of a manuscript⁵⁴ of his work, *Tārārahasyavṛtti*⁵⁵ (or, *vṛttikā*) (Lakṣmaṇa Saṃvat 511=1630 A.D.), he appears to have flourished in the period between the latter half of the sixteenth century and the middle of the seventeenth. In the colophon, he is described as son of Kamalākara and grandson of Lambodara.

Written in 15 chapters, the *Tārārahasyavṛtti* deals with such Tāntric matters as dīkṣā, puraścaraṇa in a general way, and specially with practices relating to the worship of Tārā. It is probably identical with the *Tārārahasyavṛttikā* mentioned in Nṛsiṃha Ṭhakkura's *Tārābhakti-sudhākara*, p. 141.

Besides the aforesaid Tārārahasyavṛtti, the following works are associated with the name of Śaṃkara:

Śivārcana-mahāratna, Śaivaratna, Kulamūlā-vatāra, Kramastava. Several other Tantra works are attributed to Śamkara without the qualifying epithet Gaudīya; his identity with Gaudīya Śamkara is not free from doubt.

Raghunātha Tarkavāgiša Bhaţţācārya



later than the latter. The author gives the date of composition of his work as graha-viyat sat-candra which comes to 1609 Saka=1687 A.D.

The Agama-tattva-vilāsa (flash of the principles of Agama), a huge work in five lengthy chapters, is admittedly a digest setting forth the essence of a large number of works, Vedic, Purāṇic, Tāntric, astronomical and Smṛti-śāstra. The compiler himself states that he has drawn upon 160 vidhi-śākṣī (authoritative in rules) works which are Tantras, besides works on various other branches of knowledge.

The highlights of the chapters are as follows:

- (i) Contents of the chapters, varņa, bija, nature of attributeless Puruşa and Śakti, order of creation from Sadāśiva to human beings, nature of Kuṇḍalini, Dikṣā, Guru, Śiṣya, Mantra, Nāḍī, Cakra, Mahāvidyā, Mandala, Mālā, Bali, Aśauca, Pūjā.
- (ii) Daily duties, Nyāsa, Prāṇāyāma, Mānasa-pūjā, materials for Pūjā, Āsana, flowers permissible and prohibited for Pūjā, 32 kinds of offences, rules about Vādyayantra, kinds of Pūjā, Ṣaṭkarma, Yoga, Śānti, Japa, Mudrā, Puraścaraṇa, rules to be observed on the occasion of an eclipse, Śavasādhana, various other Siddhis, Kulācāra, Kulavrkṣa, Piṭhasthāna, Bhāvas, Antaryāga, Kumārī-pūjā, Dūtiyāga, Mālya and Brāhmaṇa, Pañcamakāra, Yantra, Homa, Abhiṣeka.
- (iii) Sections on Ganesa, Sürya, Viṣṇu, Rāma, Kṛṣṇa, Lakṣmī, Sarasvatī. Under each section, the dhyāna, mantra and Pūjā-paddhati of the deity concerned have been laid down.
- (iv) Sections on Bhuvanesvarī, Nakṣatra-vidyā, Pracaṇḍa-caṇḍikā, Tripura-bhairavī, Vagalāmukhī, Mātaṅgī, Dhūmāvatī.

The nature of treatment is like that of the previous chapter. The chapter on Nakṣatra-vidyā deals with Tārā-vidyā, the story of Sarasvatī's assuming the Nīlā form, the existence of both Nīlā and Śuklā Sarasvatī, identity of Viṣṇu and Śiva.

The fifth and the last chapter contains mainly Stavas (hymns) and Kavacas (protective verses, i.e. such verses as are supposed to protect the reciter) invoking a number of deities, male and female. In this chapter, we also find the following topics: Yoga, Nāḍi, Ṣaṭcakra, Karmayoga, eulogy of Āgama, genealogy of the author, date of composition.

The work is at best a painstaking and laborious compilation, at worst a digest on hackneyed Täntric topics produced in the conventional manner. The only redeeming feature is that the compiler occasionally discusses divergent views, and gives his own conclusion. The

hymns to various deities are in pedestrian verses which are lacking in the melody and variety of metres the commonest of which is the trite Śloka. One misses in them the sublime dignity, the sonorous language and the pleasant swing and music of the hymns of Valmiki and Śamkarācārya. There is no philosophy in it. The Agama-tattva-vilāsa admirably fulfils the object of the author who frankly states, at the outset, that he has compiled the essence extracted from various treatises. Though lacking in literary value, it has some importance in the history of Tantra literature as it mentions as many as 160 Tantric works. Besides preserving the titles of so many works at one place, it helps us, to some extent, in determining the relative chronology of the works mentioned. The Agama-tattva-vilāsa, being dated, furnishes the terminus ad quem of the dates of the works mentioned. It must be admitted that those, who are particular about the punctilious perform-ance of Tantric rites with meticulous attention to details, will find this work helpful.

The Rādhā-tantra, se of unknown authorship and date, may have been of Bengal provenance. Most of its manuscripts are in Bengali script and are available in Bengal. It is mentioned in the Syāmāsaparyā-vidhi of the Bengal author Kāsinātha Tarkālamkāra. The Saktiratnākara of Rājakiśora cites the authority of the Rādhā-tantra. The date of the Saktiratnākara, however, is not known.

In the Rādhā-tantra, Kṛṣṇa has been represented as a worshipper of Śakti. In fact, the life of Kṛṣṇa symbolises the worship of Śakti. The thesis of the work is that Kṛṣṇa's Siddhi consists in his union with Rādhā.

The mineteenth century saw a spurt in Tantric activities of Bengal. The atmosphere of this province was surcharged with Tantric ideas which found free and wide expression in the Bengali poems, Baul songs and Śākta devotional songs. The teachings of Rāmakṛṣṇa and the liberal preachings of his follower, Vivekānanda, the Tāntric writings of Niveditā and the rational interpretation of Hinduism by Rāmmohan may have been indirectly responsible for doing away with the conventional rigours of religious practices and for paving the way for simpler and easier ways of fulfilling the religious aspirations of the people. The impact of Western ideas, in the wake of British domination, served also to open a new intellectual horizon among the Bengalis.



Haragovinda Rāya

Towards the close of the first quarter of the nineteenth century, a huge Tantra was compiled in Bengal. The compiler was Haragovinda Rāya, a Zamindar of Pargaṇā Palās under Sylhet, now in Bangladesh.

The work, entitled Pañcama-veda-sāra-nirṇaya, is divided into six sections (Kāṇḍa) called respectively Sṛṣṭi, Dīkṣā, Karma, Jñāna, Sādhana and Yoga. Each section is divided into sub-sections (paṭala) the number of which is respectively 24, 64, 13, 25, 22, 27. The work is a digest. It deals chiefly with the worship of Dakṣiṇā Kālikā and Kula rites. It contains Tāntric rites, but not Tāntric philosophy.

Amara Maitra

In the second quarter of the nineteenth century, Amara Maitra, a Vārendra Brāhmaṇa, son of Vāsudeva, composed or compiled three Tantras on Tāntric Sādhana and Yoga. These are as follows:⁶²

- (i) Jānadīpikā (1753 Śaka=1831 A.D.). In 23 chapters called Prakāśas.
- (ii) Amarasamgraha (1765 Śaka =1843 A.D.) Complete in 18 sections called Pādas. The topics, dealt with in it, are jaganmithyātva, tattvabodha, viveka, layayoga, navacakra, piņḍajñāna, yoga-rahasya, saṭcakra-yoga, pañcāmara-yoga, haṭhayoga, mudrā, dhāraṇā, rājayoga, jñānayoga, brahma-mantra-sādhana, sannyāsayoga, kāsīyoga, kālajñāna, vipralakṣaṇa, sāṃkhayayoga.
- (iii) Amarisamhitā (Saka 1768=1846 A.D.) In four chapters, called Upadeśas, each of which is subdivided into several sections. The topics, dealt with in it, are: sāṃkhyayoga, mantrayoga, nāḍikā-lakṣmaṇa, āsana, pratyāhāra, prāṇāyāma, dhyāna, dhāraṇā and other rules of hathayoga, procedure of pūjā.

Durgārāma

A Karpūra-stotra-ţīka, by Durgārāma Siddhāntavāgīśa, was published in Calcutta in 1891 with the text and Bengali translation by Gurunātha Vidyānidhi. The text, with commentary by Kṛṣṇanātha Nyāyapañcānana, was published in Calcutta in 1899.

Mahānirvāņa-tantra

The Mahānīrvāṇa-tantra,63 a popular work in Bengal, is believed by some scholars to have been written in this province. Unfortunately, it does not state the name of its author or compiler. Nor does it afford



sufficient evidence about its provenance. None of the arguments, put forward to prove its origin in Bengal, is conclusive. It is to be distinguished from the *Nirvāṇa-tantra* in which Rādhā is glorified as the consort of Viṣṇu.

Some scholars think that the present work, with a leaning to Vedāntic elements, had an older version which, as the word 'nirvāṇa' in the title appears to indicate, was in use among the Buddhists. In their opinion, it perhaps underwent a revision with Vedāntic ideas interpolated and pure Tāntric ritualism modified so as to boost its appeal to the Brahmanical intelligentsia.

Its date cannot be determined with certainty. That it is not very old seems to be indicated by one fact. Many Tantras have been cited in the works on Bengal Smṛti. But, even Govindānanda and Raghunandana, the last great figures in this field, who flourished in the sixteenth century, do not mention the Mahānirvāṇa. It should also be observed that none of the early well-known Tantras of Bengal, which cite a lot of Tantras, mentions the Mahānirvāṇa.

Some suspect that it was fabricated partly or entirely by Hariharānandanātha, preceptor of the great social reformer, Rām Mohan Roy (1772(?)-1833 A.D.) in order to bolster up his reformist views. This suspicion gains ground from the fact that the first edition of the work was published by the Adi Brahma Samai, founded by Ram Mohan. The scarcity of manusripts of the work, which is not usual in the case of other well-known Tantras, seems to lend countenance to the theory of fabrication.64 In this connexion, it may be pointed out that this work states Brahma-diksā as the best form of initiation. Brahma-diksā, not occurring in the earlier Tantras of Bengal, seems to hint at the fact that it was designed to propagate the doctrine of the Brāhma Samāi. In support of the theory of its Bengali origin, it is pointed out that this Tantra mentions (vi. 7) three species of fish, viz. Sala, Pathina and Rohita, as best. These particular kinds of fish are said to be found in Bengal, Farquhar, in his Outline of Religious Literature, thinks that it is not earlier than the eighteenth century.

Whatever its place of origin might have been, about its popularity in Bengal there is no doubt. So, it is worthwhile to give the highlights of its contents. A work of the Agama class, it consists of fourteen chapters (*Ullāsas*) which are named respectively as follows:

jīvanistāropāya-praśna (question about the liberation of creatures), brahmopāsanakrama (procedure of meditation on Brahman),



parabrahmopadeśa (instructions about Supreme Brahman),

paraprakṛti-sādhanopakrama (procedure of meditation on Supreme Prakṛti),

mantroddhāra-kalaśa-sthāpana-tattva-saṃskāra (rescue of mantra, placing of the pitcher and purification of Tattvas),

śricakra-sthapāna-homacakrānuṣṭhāna (placing of śricakra and the performance of homacakra),

stotra-kavaca-kulatattva-lakṣaṇa (description of hymns, protecting spells, kula principles),

varnāśramācāra-dharma (customs and duties of castes and stages of life),

kuśandikā-daśavidha-saṃskāra-vidhi (rules regarding kuśandikā and ten sacraments),

vṛddhiśrāddhādi-mṛtakriyā-pūrṇābhiṣeka (matters relating to vṛddhiśrāddha and other obsequial rites, Pūrṇābhiṣeka),

svaparānista-janaka-pāpa-prāyascitta (expiation of sin causing harm to oneself and others),

vyavahāra (secular law),

vāstu-grahayāga-jalāśayādi-pratiṣṭhā-devagrha-dānādi-sarva-deva-pratiṣṭha (matters relating to vāstu, grahayāga, consecration of tanks, etc., temples, gifts and consecration of all gods).

Śiva-linga-sthāpana-caturvidhā-vadhūta-vivaraņa (establishment of Śivalingas, description of four kinds of Avadhūtas).

It states Brahman as the highest divine principle, and uses Upaniṣadic expressions to describe Him. He is Śakti who is conceived as Mother. Prakṛti, Pārvatī, Umā, Durgā, Kālī, Lakṣmī, Rādhā are but different designations of the Jaganmātā (world-mother). In her reside Brahman, the Creator, Viṣṇu, the Preserver, Śiva (Mahākāla), the Destroyer, along with their respective Śaktis. As she devours the latter, she is Ādyā Kālikā who is also the Mother of Mahākāla. She is Mahāyoginī, and is the Creator, Preserver and Destroyer of the world. Every woman is her incarnation.

The Supreme Being is one, without a second and beyond the three qualities. He is Sat, Cit, Ananda. The worshippers of Brahman do not require any other means to acquire salvation.

The work also advocates Śākta monotheism holding Durgā as the highest *Prakṛti* known also by the names of Mahāvidyās, and equated with Lakṣmī, Sarasvatī and Śakti. According to this Tantra, Śakti is, on the one hand, the Supreme Prakṛti of Brahman, and, on the other, is



everything from the *Mahatattva* to the atom; in short, all that is dynamic and static. She is of infinite forms as Tārini, Durgā and the various Vidyās.

The Tattvas of Samkhya philosophy, viz. Prakrti, Mahat, Ahamkāra, etc., and some Vedic mantras have also been incorporated in it.

It declares (ii. 31) that, in the Kali Age, the Vedas, Purāṇas and other Śāstras have hardly any use.

The five essentials, called Pañca-tattva or Panñcamakāra⁶⁵ are as follows:

- (i) Madya—intoxicating drink which causes joy, helps one forget deep sorrow and serves as a medicine.
- (ii) Māmsa—meat which gives vigour, energy and increases intelligence.
- (iii) Matsya—fish which is delicious and increases the generative power.
- (iv) Mudrā—delicacies made of parched foodstuff; these, which grow on earth, constitute the root of the life of the three worlds.
- (v) Maithuna—sexual union which affords intense pleasure, is the origin of all creatures and is the root of the world which is without beginning or end.

The above five are allowed only to the circle (cakra) of the initiated and are purified by sacred rites and formulae. In such a circle, each man has his Sakti to his left. 66 No caste-distinction is necessary. But, evilminded and faithless persons cannot be admitted to the circle.

The Tantra warns against the abuse of the five essentials. Drinking beyond limit makes one unfit to be a devotee. Woman should only smell wine. In Kālī Age, a man should enjoy only his wife as Śakti. One, unable to control the senses, should use sweet substances like milk, honey, etc., as substitutes for *madya*. Instead of sexual intercourse, such a person should worship the lotus feet of the goddess.

A hero (Vira), possessing secret powers and fit to be a Sādhaka, is allowed in a 'circle' to take to a Śakti who is not his wife. She can be made his 'wife' by a rite specially prescribed for the purpose. For a man, possessed of divyabhāva or the highest state, who has overcome all earthly temptations, symbolical acts are prescribed in place of the above essentials.

The Kaula mode has been declared (Ch. iv) as the best in Kali Age. Great importance is attached to the following:





- (i) Mantra—incantation.
- (ii) Bīja—mystic syllables like hrīm, aim, etc.
- (iii) Yantra-mystic diagrams.
- (iv) Mudrā—particular position of fingers and movement of hands.
- (v)Nyāsa—placing the finger-tips and the palm of the right-hand on various parts of the body to the accompaniment of certain mantras.

By the above means, the Sādhaka is supposed to make the Devi favourably disposed towards himself. The last one is believed to impart Devi's life to the body of the devotee.

The ultimate goal of Sādhana is Mokṣa or liberation from the bondage of rebirths and consequent release from sufferings. This state can be reached by communion with the godhead in Mahānirvāṇa or 'great extinction'. The perfect Sādhaka is a Kula. He visualises Brahman in everything and everything in Brahman. He may or may not perform the requisite Tāntric rites. But, he will attain jīvanmukti (liberation while alive).

Mokṣa is attainable only through Tantra in the Kālī Age. Veda, Smṛti, Purāṇa, etc, were meant for ages long gone by.

In meditation (dhyāna) on the Devī, the devotee makes offerings in the following way. At first, he offers his heart-lotus as her throne, the nectar exuding from the petals of this lotus as water for washing her feet, his mind as a gift of honour, the restlessness of his senses and of his thought as dance, selflessness and passionlessness, etc., as flowers. Then he offers, in large quantities, the first four Makāras and the nectar of strīpuṣpa (woman flower) and the water used for washing the Śakti.

Behind all the various gifts and outward $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, there is the inner calm in which the devotee looks upon Mother as the inmost soul and light.⁶⁷

Besides rites and rituals, the Tantra contains many ethical principles which, however, in essentials, resemble the Brahmanical Smrtis like those of Manu and Yājñavalkya. Besides duties of castes and stages of life, the duties of the king and his officers, etc. have also been laid down. The four Brāhmanical castes are recognised, but a fifth, called Sāmānya, has been postulated. It originated from the intermixture of the four castes. It allows caste-restriction in marriage, dining and other social matters. But, no such restriction is applicable in the case of Tāntric devotees. Instead of the four usual stages of life (āśrama), recognised in Brāhmanical Śāstra, the Tantra says that only two, gārhasthya (householdership) and bhaiksuka (asceticism), are



suited to Käil Age. Some of the important duties, taught in the Tantra, are as follows:

- (1) A householder should never inflict physical punishment on his wife, but should cherish her like his mother.
- (2) Even if he is about to die of hunger, he should never take food before feeding his parents, dependents and guests.
- (3) A man should engage his son in household duties up to his twentieth year, but after that should look upon him as his equal.
- (4) One should cherish one's daugher and educate her (sikṣaṇiyā) with great care till her marriage.
 - (5) Lust and anger must be abjured by all means.

Chapter IX enumerates and describes the ten sacraments (samskāras) from impregnation to marriage substantially in the manner of the Brāhmanical scriptures. Of the eight forms of marriage, recognised in the orthodox Brāhmanical works, Brāhma appears to be the only form recognised in the Mahānirvāṇa. It is regarded as so important that one is debarred from taking another wife in the Brāhma form without the consent of the first wife married according to this form. The wife, married in this form, is patnī in the real sense of the term; she is the grheśvarī (mistress of the house).

Another kind of marriage, recognised in it for Śāktas, is Śaiva-vivāha. It is of two kinds—one for a limited period according to the rules of the Cakra, stated above; the other till death. It is brought about by the fellow Śāktas, at the time of Cakra rituals, according to the mutual desire of a man and a woman. Having obtained their permission, one should repeat mantra, salute the Supreme Kālī for 108 times. Then the man asks the woman to choose him as her husband. Thereupon, the woman, having chosen him with sandalpaste, flower and ātapa rice, will place her hand on that of the man. Next, the leader of the Cakra will utter a mantra praying to Kālī for protecting the couple and sprinkle over them honey or arghya water for twelve times. Simultaneously, other members of the Cakra will utter Svasti. Then the leader will instruct the husband and the woman, bowed before him, to act as promised.

The text clearly states that, in such a marriage, there is no restriction of age and caste.⁷² The only restrictive injunction is that one should marry a woman who is without husband (bhartrhinā) and is not a sapiņēdā.⁷³ In Brahmanical scriptures even a sagotrā, that is a woman having the same gotra as that of the man intending to mary her, is



debarred. This restriction appears to have been waived in this Tantra. The eligibility of a *bhartṛhīnā* woman appears to indicate that even a widow was allowed for the purpose.

In the first kind of Śaiva-vivāha, the husband, desirous of issue, should meet his wife after her monthly impurity, and leave her with the expiry of the Cakra-period.⁷⁴ The child, born out of Śaiva-vivāha in the regular order,⁷⁵ should be regarded as having the caste of its mother. In the reverse order,⁷⁶ the child will be looked upon as having a sāmānya jāti or mixed caste. The son, born of such a union, is debarred from offering pinda to the ancestors.

The Mahānirvāṇa forbids the Śaiva-vivāha of a girl of good family if such a marriage is arranged by her father out of anger or avarice. The father of an only daughter is not allowed to give his daughter in such a marriage.

Chapter X deals with the disposal of the dead, *Vṛddhiśrāddha*⁷⁷ and other kinds of *śrāddha*, *aśauca*, gifts, etc. The contents of this chapter, relating to these subjects, substantially agree with the prescriptions of Brāhmanical Smṛti works. Finally, it deals with the Tāntric rite called *Pūrṇābhiṣeka*.

Chapter XI deals with sin, expiatory rites and punishment inflicted by the king on those who transgress the rules of conduct.

The next chapter treats of civil and criminal law which, in essentials, agree with the codes of Manu and Yajñavalkya. A departure is found in the law relating to a woman married in accordance with the Saiva rite, stated before. The son of such a woman is debarred from inheriting the property of her deceased husband if there is a child of his wife married according to the Brahma rite or if his pitr-sapinda or mātrsapinda exists. A woman, married according to Śaiva rite, and her sons are entitled only to maintenance from the successor of the deceased in proportion to the property left by the latter. Such a woman does not inherit the property of her father or mother. The property of a dead person, whose Saivi wife and her children have predeceased him, devolves upon the following persons, each preceding being preferable to the succeeding one: Samānodaka, Ācārya (preceptor) and king. The successor will offer pinda78 till his death in memory of the person whose property he inherits. But, the son of a Saiva wife is debarred from the right of offering pinda.

Incidentally, the rules regarding adoption of a son have also been dealt with in this chapter.



Chapter XIII deals with Mahākālī, establishment of images of deities, tanks, etc., vāstuyāga, grahayāga, consecration of temples, mounts of gods, etc.

The topics, dealt with in the last chapter, are — mode and result of the establishment of immovable Siva-linga, the rites consequent upon the break of worship of such a Siva-linga, rules regarding the giving up of broken images of deities, means to salvation, knowledge and action, indispensability of knowledge for salvation, characteristics of four kinds of Avadhūtas. In this chapter, Kaula-dharma has been praised very highly. It has been spoken of as the best of all religions. Great merit is said to follow the adoration of a Kula saint.

The usual Tantric topics of Dikṣā, Nyāsa, Puraścaraṇa, Mantra, etc. have been death with.

Consideration for women is a noteworthy feature of this work. It ordains (*Uliasa* viii) that a daughter also should be brought up and educated carefully.

There are flashes of literary skill as in the following description of the Adya image of the Supreme Sakti:

meghāngim sasisekharām trinayanām raktāmbaram vibhratīm pāṇibhyām-abhayam varam ca vikasad raktāravindasthitām/

nṛtyantam purato nipiya madhuram mādhvika-madyam mahākālam vikṣya vikāsitānanavarām ādyām bhaja kālikām//

The Goddess has a complexion like the colour of cloud. She is moon-crested, three-eyed, wearing a red cloth. She is granting freedom from fear and a boon with her two hands. She is on a red lotus in bloom. She is smiling at the sight of Mahākāla (Śiva) who, having drunk wine, is dancing in front of her.

Composed in the stately Śārdūlavikṛīḍita metre, the verse conjures up a vision of the Goddess in a vivid form. The pictorial effect of the words and occasional alliterations are noteworthy.

Time was when a keen controversy raged among Sanskrit scholars and social leaders as to whether or not the rites and worship performed in accordance with the *Mahānirvāṇa-tantra*, would be valid. There were stalwarts both for and against the above work. For an idea of such controversial issues, the reader may look up the *Guru-tantra*, *Saṇṣṣaya-nirāsa*, pp. 1-11, 30, 31.

The Prāṇatoṣiṇi⁷⁹ is a well-known huge Tāntric digest produced in the nineteenth century. It was compiled by Rāmatoṣaṇa Vidyālaṅkāra, great grandson of the famous Kṛṣṇānanda, author of the celebrated



Tantrasāra. It was written in 1743 Śaka (=1821 A.D.) with the patronage of Prāṇakṛṣṇa Viśvāsa. The work has been so named with the initial portion of 'Prāṇakṛṣṇa' and the concluding portion of 'Rāmatoṣaṇa'. Son of Rāmahari, Prāṇakṛṣṇa was a patron of learning and landlord of Khardah, a suburb of Calcutta in the 24-Pargaṇās district of West Bengal. He lived from 1764 to 1834-1836 A.D. The works Bhasmakaumudī and Viṣṇukaumudī are associated with his name. To him are attributed also the Ratnāvalī (Cikitsā-saṃgraha), Vaiṣṇavāmṛta, Vijnākaumudī (?). Besides these, works on Āyurveda and Smṛti, too, are attributed to him. In the Introductory portion of the Prāṇatoṣiṇī, he is stated to have got the Prāṇakṛṣṇa-kriyāmbudhi compiled by many scholars who consulted many works on Jyotiṣa. To his inspiration is attributed also the compilation, called Prāṇakṛṣṇa-śabdāmbudhi. It seems that the works were composed by Paṇḍits at his inspiration.

The work has been conceived as a creeper (vratati or latā). The compiler says that it excels Kalpadruma, Cintāmaṇi and Kāmadhenu. The first yields whatever is desired by a person, the second gives whatever is thought of, and the last one bestows the intended object. But, this work always gives the fruit as soon as it is seen (dṛṣtaiva yac-chati phalaṃ bhuvì sarvadeyam).

It opens with the genealogy of Prāṇakṛṣṇa, the author's patron. Then the compiler mentions a number of Tantras by consulting which he prepared this digest.

The work is divided into seven sections called Kāṇḍas. These are named in order as follows: sargādyakāṇḍasya ādimaḥ pariccheda, ankurapariccheda, śākhāpariccheda, praśākhā nāma viccheda, pallavarūpeṣupariccheda, stabaka-rūpartupariccheda, koraka-viccheda. Each Kāṇḍa consists of several sub-sections.

It deals in detail with all the Tantric topics. A few interesting matters are stated below. On the authority of the *Matsyasūkta*, it is laid down that a man, without a wife, has no future; all his actions become futile. A wifeless man should avoid the worship of deities and great sacrifices. As a car, with a single wheel, and a bird, with one wing, are useless, so an unmarried man is unworthy of all acts. On the same authority, a man is asked to resort to *Samnyāsa* as an alternative to *Gārhasthya*, but not the third stage or the life of a forest-dweller.

Elsewhere the first state is stated to be unsuitable in Käli Age. For a Brāhmaņa, the Brāhmaņa wife is dharmapatnī (wife for religious



purposes) and a wife of any other caste is $k\bar{a}mapatnI$ (wife of pleasure). This is contrary to the Brahmanical Smṛti which categorically prohibits the marriage of a girl of an unequal caste. It is not clear whether or not the wife of an unequal caste can be the dharmapatI in the case of Kṣatriyas and Vaiśyas.

From the trend of the discussion, which of the eight Smārta forms of marriage is approved is not clear. It is, however, obvious that the Brāhma form is regarded as the best.⁸¹

It is interesting to note that, though citing the authority of the *Mahānirvāṇa* at several places, the work does not appear to approve of Śaivavivāha, prescribed in the latter.

On the authority of the Kulārṇava, the derivative meanings of the words guru, nātha and ācārya are given as follows:

guhyāgamārtha-tattvā-nusandhānād bodhanādapi/ rudrādi-deva-rūpatvād gurur-ityabhidhīyate//

[Guru is so called as he seeks and imparts the knowledge of the meaning of the secret Agamas and the principles laid down therein; and as he assumes the forms of divine beings Rudra, etc. It is interesting to note that 'gu' of guhya and 'ru' of Rudra constitute the word 'guru'].

sthagitajñāna-cihnatvāt śrīnāthaḥ kathitaḥ/

[Natha is so called as he is the embodiment of esoteric knowledge].

svayamācarate šiṣyānā-cāre sthāpayatyapi/ ācinoti hi šāstrārthānā-cāryas-tena kathyate// carācara-samāsannam-adhyāpayati yaḥ svayam/ yamādi-yogasiddhatvādā-cārya iti kathyate//

[Acarya is so called as he himself practises good conduct, and makes disciples practise the same, gathers the meanings of Śastras, himself teaches matters relating to the movable and immovable objects, and as he has attained success in the Yogic practices called Yama, etc.]

The seven ācāras, dealt with in the work, are —

- (i) Related to paśubhāva—vedācāra, vaiṣṇavācāra, śaivācāra, dakṣiṇācāra.
- (ii) Relating to Divya and Vīra—vāma, siddhānta, kaula. In the above order of ācāras, each succeeding is better than the preceding one. Thus Kaula is the ācāra par excellence.

The various forms of Kālī, mentioned in it, are Daksiņakālikā, Guhyakālī, Śmaśanakālī.



On the authority of the Kulārṇava, the etymological meanings of Matsya and Māmsa are given as follows:

Matsya — it puts an end to $M\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ and impurities, etc., determines the path to salvation, removes eightfold misery, etc.

Māmsa — it produces welfare, gives the pleasure of right knowledge; it is the favourite of all gods.

Of the different kinds of wine, mentioned in the work, two main classes are discernible, viz. madya and $sur\bar{a}$.

panasa (made from jackfruits),
drākṣā (made from grapes),
mādhūka (made from madhūka⁸² tree or flower),
kharjūra (made from dates),
tāla (made from palm fruits),
aikṣava (made from sugarcanes),
madhūttha (fermented from honey),
sīdhu (distilleld from molasses, rum),
mādhvīka,⁸³
marieya (?),
nārikelaja (distilled from cocoanuts).

These eleven kinds of *Madya* are said to be conducive to *bhukti* (enjoyment) and *mukti* (liberation).

The following three are called surā:

Gaudī (distilled from molasses), Mādhvī (fermented from honey) and Paiṣṭī (fermented from rice). These three are said to be the best as these lead to all kinds of success.

In this connexion, it may be noted that all the three kinds of *surā* have been categorically condemned, particularly for Brāhmaṇas, in the Smṛti literature. The drinking of such wines taints a Brāhmaṇa with the gravest sin the expiation for which is nothing short of death.

The pañca-tattvas for Vaiṣṇavas are guru-tattva, mantra-tattva, manas-tattva, deva-tattva, dhyāna-tattva.

The work lays down procedures for attaining the ability to interpret the cries of various creatures, terrestrial and aerial. Of the former, we have chameleon, mouse, cat, jackal, frogs, lizard, cow, deer, sheep, goat, tiger, elephant, lion, boar, etc. In the latter class are crow, khañjana, peacock, crane, sparrow, parrot, pigeon, cock, partridge. Some aquatic birds and insects are also mentioned in this connexion.

Among the means of controlling others are mentioned Vasikaraņa, Adarsana, etc.



Among the rites for causing harm to others, the most noteworthy are stambhana, uccāṭana, māraṇa, śatrūtsādana, vidveṣaṇa. Rites for counteracting the above are also described.

Certain spells and rites are prescribed for effecting the following: victory in disputes, preventing theft, freedom from disease, removal of thirst, loss of sleep, appetite.

As a panacea is prescribed the following recipé:

ghee is to be stirred and in it the root of *nala* (lotus stalk) is to be crushed.

Then one should drink it with a mantra. For preventing the loss of semen one should smear the root of the navel with the pulverised root of the Eranda plant. Also to be applied is the bile of the Rohita fish. For this also there is an incantation.

The work devotes some space to the glory of the names of Viṣṇu, and enumerates His hundred and eight names in a hymn quoted from the Nāradapañcarātra.

The wrok describes Durgotsava in detail. Śabarotsava on the $Dasam\bar{\iota}$ day, prescribed in the Smṛti digests of Bengal dealing with $Durg\bar{a}p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, is conspicuous by its absence in this work.

An important topic in this work is the duties laid down for the twelve months from Aśvina to Bhādra.

A few other important matters, discussed in the *Prāṇatoṣiṇī*, will be dealt with under Aspects of Bengal Tantra which will follow.

Caitanyaism and Tantra

It is interesting to note that, in certain Tantras, Caitanya is mentioned. Though these works or portions thereof containing references to Caitanya, may not have been composed by Bengali authors, yet the influence of Caitanya on their authors is undoubted. In the *Îsāna-saṃhitā*, stated to be included in the *Kulārṇava-tantra*, attempts have been made to establish the divinity of Caitanya. In the *Gūḍhāvatāra*, stated to be a part of the *Viśvasāra-tantra* or *Vīśvasāroddhāra*, Caitanya has been described as an incarnation of Viṣṇu. In the *Ūrdhvāmnāya-saṃhitā*, Caitanya, instead of the Buddha, is mentioned among the incarnations of Viṣṇu. Some portions of the Tantras *Brahmayāmala* and *Kṛṣṇayāmala* are called *Caitanyakalpa*.

It is rather strange that, despite the age-old sectarian hostility between the Śāktas and Vaiṣṇavas, the above Tantras, should accord such an exalted position to Caitanya. The avowedly Vaiṣṇava Tantras



may do so. But, in other Tantras, this phenomenon can be explained by assuming that these were composed or compiled in Bengal, and naturally the authors or compilers could not escape the compelling influence of Vaiṣṇavaism, as preached by Caitanya. Indeed, Caitanyaism flooded the religious life of Bengal and gaurapāramayavāda (doctrine which holds Caitanya to be Supreme Being) was an accepted creed. In this connexion, it is interesting to note that some devotional singers of Bengal, notably Rāmprasād, attempted to syncretise Viṣṇuism and Śāktism. Vṛndāvana was another stronghold of Vaiṣṇavaism. The religious leaders of that region also held Caitanya in high esteem. The above Tantras, or at least some of them, might have been influenced by the post-Caitanya Vaiṣṇava leaders of that region.

Minor Works

A few minor works, composed by Bengali writers, have also been published. Most of these are manuals on procedural matters relating to various Tantric rites, particularly Kali worship. Among the authors of such works, Harakumāra Tagore (1798-1858) of the well-known Tagore family of Pathuriaghat, Calcutta, figures prominently. One of his works is entitled *Hara-tattva-didhiti* (1881). In it, he describes various matters relating to Hindu rites and customs, and copiously cites Tantras.

Another work of his is styled Purascaraṇa-bodhini (1895). The subtitle, Purascaraṇa-paddhati, speaks of the contents of the work. It comprises eight chapters (ullāsas). Purascaraṇa is a well-known Tāntric rite. The author describes, on the authority of 'Tantrādi-śāstra', various matters relating to this rite. In the beginning, the author states the names of some of his ancestors. He states his object in composing this work though there is an excellent section on this topic in the ocean-like treatise, called Tantrasāra, written by Kṛṣṇānanda. He says that he has cited additional authorities so that his novel work may give delight to the hearts of wise people.

From the concluding verse, we learn that the work was composed *sara-śruti-saritpati-kṣiti-mite sāke*, i.e. in Śaka 1745=1823 A.D.

The main topics, dealt with in the work, are: Definition of purascarana, purascarana whether obligatory or optional, effect of the rite, appropriate time and place, duties in connexion with it, Samkalpa, Kūrma-cakra, Āsana, Japa, Varnamālā-nirūpaṇa, post-japa duties. Tarpaṇa, Abhiṣeka, Brāhmaṇa-bhojana, Pañcavādya, Kumārī-pūjā, procedure of purascarana, miscellaneous purascaranas.



The same author composed a work, entitled Śilā-cakrārthabodhini. In it Tantric works, along with Puranas and other works, are cited. It comprises ten chapters (ullāsa). It deals with the origin, and various kinds of Salagrama-silas or stones which are worshipped as symbols of Nārāyana. The author states the place where such stones are available and discusses the good and bad features of them. Among the bad features, there are some which render them unfit for worship. It is interesting to find that the stones are variosuly named in accordance with particular features. Some of the names are Sudarsana, Laksminäräyana, Pitambara, Nrsimha, Vämana, Dadhivämana. Some of the stones have various names containing the word Rāma, e.g. Paraśurāma, Dāśarathi-rāma, Kauśalyānandana-rāma, Rāmacandra, Vīrarāma, Sītārāma, etc. Some stones have the various names of Krsna, e.g. Bālakrsna, Gopāla, Vamsigopāla, Kamsamardana, etc. Some names hint at various aspects of Visnu, e.g. Vainateya, Garudadhvaja, Madhustidana, etc. A kind of stone is named Vaikuntha, the abode of Visnu.

The stones have been classified in accordance with the number of cakras (circular marks) contained in them. These are divided into thirteen classes, the number of cakras ranging from one to twelve. A stone of the thirteenth class contains bahucakras; bahu obviously means more than twelve. One particular kind in this class is designated as Bahurūpin (having many forms). It is described as bahucakram (having many cakras), bahudvāram (having many openings), bahurekham (having many lines), bahūdaram (having many interior hollows).

It is interesting to note that certain stones are named after the various designations of Siva, e.g. Sadyojāta, īśāna, Sadāśiva, Tryambaka, Dhūrjați, etc. The worship of such stones is stated to be pleasing to Siva.

Some stones are named after Śakti, e.g. Śrīvidyā, Mahākālī, Gaurī. Their worship is said to please goddess Bhavānī. A few kinds of stones are named after Gaṇeśa, Ravi, Candra and Grahas.

A stone, which grows at Dvārakā, is said to be as holy as a crore of holy places. One is stated to be free from all sins, accumulated for one year, at the sight of such a stone but once.

On the authority of the $Garuda-pur\bar{a}na$, the provenance of $S\bar{a}lagr\bar{a}mas$ is determined as follows:



The holy place, called Cakranadī, situated in the land intervening between the northern bank of the Gandakī and south of the Himālaya. The mountain, with golden summit, is to the north of this place. Its extent is twelve *yojanas*.

According to the Meru-tantra, it is as follows:

At Gandaki, the land covering ten yojanas to the south of the Himālaya, there is a holy place called Cakra-tīrtha.

The familiar topic of purascarana engages the attention of Mihirkiran Bhattacharya. In the Purascarana-ratnākara, he has compiled various texts, mainly Tantric, in his discussion of the different matters relating to purascarana. The work is divided into two parts of which the principal contents are as follows:

Part I: Meaning of the term, characteristics of purascaraņa, necessity of it, determination of the number of Japa, Homa, Tarpana, etc. in it, prohibition of purascaraņa for the uninitiated person, appropriate time, appropriate place, Bhūmi-nirṇaya, Bhūmi-parigraha, Ankurāropaṇa, Kūrmacakra, Āsana, Diknirṇaya, Bhakṣyābhakṣya, practices at the time of purascaraṇa, commencement, Saṃkalpa, appropriate time for Japa and Pūjā, commencement of Japa, procedure of Japa, making of garlands, practices permitted and prohibited in connexion with mālā-japa, dedication of Japa, praise of Japa, post-japa duties, tarpaṇa, Abhiṣeka, feeding of Brāhmaṇas, necessity of Purascaraṇa.

Part II: Guru-purascaraņa, Mahā-purascaraņa, Pañcānga-purascaraņa, Brahma-purascaraņa, miscellaneous Purascaraņas, Grahaņa-purascaraņa, duties in the absence of mantrasiddhi after purascaraņa, procedure of mālā-saṃskāra, procedure of Kumārī-pūjā, Brhathoma, means of rapid success.

The Rahasya-pūjā-paddhati, compiled by Jñānendranātha or Jñānānanda Tīrthanātha, son of Jaganmohana Tarkālankāra, deals with the procedure of Rahasya-pūjā which means worship with pañca-makāras. The main topics of the work are: Viśeṣapūjā, Vijayā-śodhana, Vijayā-dhyāna, mantra of saṃvidā,*5 sudhā-ghaṭa-sthāpana, dravya-śodhana, dhyāna and pūjā of Ānandabhairava and Ānandabhairavī, purification of māṃsa, matsya, mudrā, Śakti, Kula flowers, śripātra-sthāpana, tarpaṇa, purification of tattvas,*6 bindu, bali, cakrānuṣṭhāna.

Jaganmohana Tarkālankara compiled a Nityapūjā-paddhati according to Tantra; it was enlarged by his son Jñānendranātha. The same author compiled the work, entitled Sanātana-dharmā-nuṣṭhāna, the



first volume of which deals with the procedure of tenfold samskāra in accordance with Tantra and the second with the procedural matters relating to *śrāddha* in conformity with Tāntric practices.

The Guru-tantra appears, from the colophon to the archetype, to have been composed by one Rāmaśańkara who may have been a Bengali. The date of its composition is given as Śaka 1416 (=1494 A.D.). This short tract seeks to lay down the means whereby one can attain mantra-siddhi. As the title indicates, it emphasises the role of a guru who is regarded as superior to all Śāstras, tapas, Śiva, japa, etc.

The Kalyarcana-candrika, compiled by Nilakamala Lahidi, gives an exhaustive account of the procedure of Kālī-worship. Incidentally it dwells upon places and time suitable for worship, the various kinds of pūjā — nitya, naimittika, kāmya, sāttvika, rājasika, tāmasika, mānasi, antaryāgātmikā, bāhyā, siddha-pīthas, bhāvas, ācāras, various images and symbols of Käli, puraścarana, kumārīpūjā, Śivābali, etc. It brings out the great importance of guru, and describes Kundalini, Satcakrabheda, morning duties, etc. The work cites a number of Tantras. In the beginning of the work, the author traces his genealogy from Nārāyana, stated to have been one of the five Brahmanas brought from Kānvakubia by Ādiśūra, ruler of Bengal. The author's father's name is given as Kălimohana. One of his ancestors is named as Vallabhācārya who is said to have been called Mandana Miśra and to have married Līlāvatī, daughter of Udayānācarya. The original home of his ancestors is mentioned as village Kakaid in the district of Rajshahi (now in Bangladesh). One of his ancestors is reported to have migrated to a place called Kacuyā in Rajshahi. Another ancestor of the author is stated to have migrated to Rangpur (in Bangladesh).

The author appears to have been appointed an assistant to Sivanātha, minister of the then ruler (dharāpati) who was perhaps a local Chief, and grandfather of the author. The name of the author's guru appears as Harinātha.

The date of composition of the work is given as Saka 1784 (=1862 A.D.). The date of printing is stated as Saka 1801 (=1879 A.D.).

Unpublished Tantric Works

We have dealt with Bengal Tantra available in print. Those still unpublished far outnumber the published ones. We have set forth the names, along with references, of such unpublished Tantric works as appear to have been composed or compiled by Bengalis. The list is not



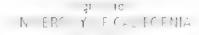
exhaustive. Tantra manuscripts in a very large number are available in different collections and libraries of West Bengal and Bangladesh. The principal institutions, where Tantra manuscripts are deposited, are Asiatic Society, Sanskrit College, Vanglya Sāhitya Pariṣat, Saṃskrita Sāhitya Pariṣat and Calcutta University—all in Calcutta. The Navadvīpa Sādhāraṇa Granthāgāra at Navadvīpa, Nadiya, in West Bengal, has a good collection of Tantras. Noteworthy manuscript libraries in Bangladesh are in Dacca University and Varendra Research Society, Rajshahi.

The unpublished Tantric manuscripts, whose titles have been collected by us in an appendix to this work, show little or no originality. Many of them deal with the procedure of worshipping the deities of the Mahāvidyā group, particularly Kālī. Some are merely epitomes of other works. A few works deal with initiation, purascarana, mandalas and their application in Durgāpūjā, Yantras, Mudrās, Cakras, Satkarma, various Tantric mantras. Ouite a few manuscripts are commentaries on such well-known works as Anandalahari, Karpūrādi-stava, Mahimanah-stotra, Svarūpākhya-stotra, Sundari-rahasya, Gurupādukā-stotra, Gautamīya-tantra, etc. Two manuscripts dwell on the origin of sound and the significance of letters starting from 'A'. At least one work, entitled Vasakārya-manjari, deals with the rites designed to keep others under control. Vaisnavite persuasion is manifest in the Lalitā-rahasya in which the author seeks to establish the predominance of Kṛṣṇa. An interesting fact about the unpublished manuscripts is that some non-Brahmins appear to have composed a few works. For in-. stance, the Tantracandrika (Calcutta Asiatic Soc. Ms. Cat., VIII, serial no. 6274) is associated with the name of Rāmagati Sena. Kṛṣṇānanda author of the Agama-candrika, was a Käyastha of Pürvasthali in West Bengal. He is known to have 87 written eighteen works. 88 This work is referred to as his own in the concluding verse of the fifth canto of his Kamalodaya (VSP, Cat., p.xxvi).

From the incomplete manuscript that exists, it appears to have dealt with dikṣā and worship of Kālī, Tārā, Śrīvidyā, Bhuvaneśvarī, Bhairavī, Chinnamastā and Lakṣmī.

One Nandarāma Tarkavāgisa appears to be the author of a commentary on the Ṣaṭcakranirūpaṇa in which he refers to Harivallabha Ray as his patron. To him are attributed a number of small tracts on Tantra and philosophy. He probably flourished in the first half of the 18th century.





From the biographical account, contained in the Sundarīrahasya Vṛṭṭṭi,⁹⁰ we learn that the author, Ratnanābha Āgamācārya, a Vārendra Brahmin of Maitreya denomination, was son of Nārāyaṇa and grandson of Mukunda, and disciple of Gopīnātha, disciple of Hayagrīva.

A Sundarīrahasya Vṛtti is referred to in Yadunātha Cakravartin's Mantraratnākara.⁹¹

The author of the *Mantraratnākara* describes himself as a native of Gauda (Bengal) and son of Vidyābhūṣaṇa Bhattācārya. It consists of four *paṭalas* (chapters) and of ten *Tarangas* (sections) and deals with conventional Tāntric matters including *antaryāga*, *yoga*, Śānti, worship of Ṣoḍaśī, Śrī-vidyā, etc.

The manuscript⁹² is dated Saka 1774 (=1852 A.D.).

A work, entitled Śyāmāsantoṣaṇa-stotra appears to be by Kāśīnātha Tarkapañcāṇaṇa (MS. No.3540, Serial no. 6661 of Calcutta Asiatic Soc. Cat., VIII) who was probably a Professor at Calcutta Sanskrit College.

The date of the work is given (Fol.104b) as rasa-sara-muni-candra (Saka) which appears to be 1756 Saka=1834 A.D.

It appears to be complete in four chapters, and deals with the greatness and worship of the goddess.

A Tantradipikā⁹³ appears to be by Gopāla Pañcānana who speaks of himself as son of Harinātha and grandson of Āgamavāgīśa who appears to be Kṛṣṇānanda, author of the Tantrasāra. This Gopāla is probably identical with Gopāla Nyāyapancānana to whom are attributed several Smṛti digests the titles of which end in-nirṇaya.⁹⁴

We have already described the contents of the two big digests which are still unpublished. These are the Pañcama-veda-sāra-nirṇaya and the Āmarī-saṃhitā.

NOTES

- 1. On sex-union as a means of Sādhanā in Buddhist Tantra, see Prajňopāya, V.25, Jñānasiddhi, I. 80-82, Guhyasamāja.
- 2. On the work and Matsyendra, see *Kaulajñāna-nirṇaya*, ed. P.C. Bagchi, Introduction.
- 3. cf. yatra dṛṣṭir manastatra bhūtendriyam apudgalaḥ/ svasaktir jīvabhūtāni dṛṣṭirlakṣyair layaṃ gatā//

— (iii. 26, 3a)

4. xii. 6.



5. cf. sivamadhye gatā saktiḥ kriyāmadhyasthitaḥ sivaḥ/
jñānamadhye kriyā līnā kriyā ltyati icchayā//
icchāsaktir layam yāti yatra tejaḥ paraḥ sivaḥ/

-- (ii. 6, 7a)

(Śakti has got into Śiva, Śiva is in the midst of action, action is merged in knowledge, action and will coalesce. Will-force is lost where Supreme Śiva is aglow with lustre or is aflame with the fire of energy.)

- 6. adhahsthā samsthitā bhuktih ūrdhvam muktirvarānane, ii.. 9a.
- 7. xvii. 27a.
- 8. One is found in Sadhanamālā, ii, 466-68.
- 9. Two in Sanskrit are published in Sādhanamālā, i. 79 and Sādhanasamuccaya, i. 76.
- 10. For his life and works, see A. Chattopadhyaya, Atisa and Tibet, Calcutta. For controversy about his date etc., Devesh Das in Bengali daily Ananda Bāzār Patrikā of 13.9.81. Also see the Bengali weekly Desh of 27.2.82 (p. 9), 24. 4.82 (p. 3), 8.5.82, p. 3, 15.5.82, p. 3, 10.7.82, p.6, 17.7.82, p. 5.
- 11. According to some, he was a native of Bihar. But, in his works, called Bodhimārga-pradīpa-pañjikā-nama and Ekavīra-sādhana-nāma, both preserved in the Tibetan Tanjur, he is stated as a Bengali. Some think that he was born at Sāhar, (Village Sābhār in Bangladesh).
- 12. See Bauddha gān o dohā by H.P. Sastri, Preface, p. 28.
- 13. See list of unpublished Tantras (Infra).
- 14. For his biography, see Sarvānanda-tarangiņī (in Sanskrit) attributed to Šivanātha, son of Sarvānanda; Sarvānanda (in Bengali) by A.C. Mukherji and Thākur Sarvānanda (in Bengali) by N.K. Chakravarti; Mātrgāthā (in Bengali) by Sitaramdas Omkarnath; Devayāna (Bengali monthly), Vol. vii, No. 4 (article by Dinesh Bhattacharya).
- 15. Acc. to D.C. Bhattacharya (Introduction to Sarvollāsa, p. 29, it should be 1426 or 1437 A.D.)
- 16. Several editions printed since 1882.
- Ed. R.M. Chakravarti, with Foreward, Preface and Introduction by G. Kaviraj, R.M. Chakravarti and D.C. Bhattacharya, Comilla (Bănglādesh), 1941.
- 18. Vide the Tantra Volume of Cat. of MSS in Asiatic Society, Calcutta, Preface by C. Chakravarti.



- 19. Vide P.K. Gode Comm. Vol., p. 32.
- 20. Ibid., p. 27.
- 21. Of its several editions, the following may be noted:
 - (i) Ed. P. Tarkaratna, with comm. and Beng. translation, Calcutta, 1927.
 - (ii) Ed. R. Chattopadhyaya, with Bengali trans. by Candrakumāra, Calcutta, 1282 B.S.
 - (iii) Ed. S.C. Mukhopādhyaya, Vasumatī, Calcutta, 1334 B.S. It is called Brhat-tantrasāra.
- 22. See D.C. Bhattacharya in P.K. Gode Commemoration Volume, p. 32.
- 23. On the text-problem, see D.C. Bhattacharya, op. cit.
- For lists, see T. Aufrecht, Oxford Catalogue (1859), p. 95;
 P.K. Gode in Journal of G. Jha Res. Inst., Vol. I, pp. 177-84;
 D.C. Bhattacharya, P.K. Gode Comm. Vol., pp. 30-31.
- 25. In support of this idea, the following line from the Manusmṛti (ii. 146) has been quoted Utpādaka-brahma-dātror garīyān brahmanaḥ pitā. Brahmada means ācārya who performs the Upanayana rite of the pupil, and initiates him to Vedic study. In Tantra, brahmana has been used to denote one who gives Tāntric dikṣā to the disciple. The immediately preceding verse of Manu (ii. 145) says ācāryāṇāṃ sataṃ pitā gauraveṇātirichate. Kullūka reconciles the two apparently conficting texts as follows: ācārya in ii. 145 is one who has taught the pupil only Gāyatri mantra.
- 26. Oil prepared from the fat of human body.
- 27. The three spices, viz. black pepper, long pepper and dry ginger.
- 28. D.C. Bhattacharya informs us that reference to Purnananda and quotations from his work could not be traced by him in any of the manuscripts examined by him. Vide P.K. Gode Commemoration Volume, p. 31.
- 29. Pages 155 and 488-89.
- 30. Ed. P. Sastri (with Bengali translation), 1349 B.S.; R. Chattopadhyay, Vividha-tantra-samgraha, Calcutta, 1881-86.
- 31. Ed. J. Vidyāsāgra, Calcutta, 1896.
- 32. See Woodroffe, Serpent Power, Preface; Śaktisaṃgama Tantra, Kālīkhaṇḍa, ed. B. Bhattacharya, Preface, Padmanath Sarasvati, Prabandhāṣṭaka (In Bengali), pp. 96-109; Bengali journal 'Ārati' 1314 B.S., Vaiśakh.



- 33. Ed. P.C. Pal, etc., Calcutta, 1948 Vikrama Samvat; Jīvānanda, Calcutta, 1896; P.K. Shastri, Calcutta, 1313 B.s.; R.M. Chatterji, Calcutta; S. Tirthanatha, with Bengali trs., Calcutta, 1389 B.S.
- 34. Details will follow. The Satcakranirūpaņa is a part of it.
- 35. In Sāhityika Varṣapañjī, 1383 (Calcutta), p. 45, the following works are also attributed to him. Vāmakeśvara-tantra, Śāktānanda-taraṅgìnī.
- Critically ed. by B.M. Sămkhyatīrtha and C. Bhattacharya, with Introduction by P.C. Bagchi, Calcutta 1936; Tantrik Texts Series No. 2.
- 37. i. 47-51.
- 38. i. 63.
- 39. i. 63.
- 40. ānanda-ghana-sandoha-paramātmani cāvyaye/ jīvātma-nilayo mokṣa iti me vastuto matih//

-- i. 64.

- 41. i. 67. the word agama is derived thus:

 agataḥ śiva-vaktrebhyaḥ (come from the mouth of Śiva), gataśca
 girijā-mukhe (gone to the mouth of Pārvatī), mataśca vāsudevena
 (approved by Vāsudeva).
- 42. ātmānam modayaty-eṣā šāntānandamayam dravam/ janayatyeva sā yasmān mudrā bhūtamayam vapuḥ//

- xvii. 12

- 43. It is thus defined by Mādhavācārya quoted in the Śabda-kalpadruma:
 - sīdhur-ikṣurasaiḥ pakvair-apakvair-āsavo mataḥ/
 maireyaṃ dhātakī-puṣpaṃ guḍa-dhānāmla-sahitam//
 Sīdhu (a kind of drink) is prepared with boiled sugarcane-juice,
 āsava (a class of drinks) with unboiled (sugarcane-juice), maireya
 (a type of drink) consists in Dhātakī flower (Woodfordia fruticosa)
 mixed with powdered grain (usually rice or barley) and sour substances!
- 44. It is thus defined in the Hamsa-mahesvara-tantra:

 japa-homau tarpanam ca seko brāhmana-bhojanam!

 pancāngopāsanam loke purascaranam ucyate!!

 Japa (muttering or repetition of a mantra), homa (oblation to fire),

 tarpana (libation of water), seka (sprinkling of water or bath),

 brāhmans-bhojana (feeding of Brāhmanas), this fivefold act is
 called purascarana among the people.

- 45. Which Cakra is meant is not clear.
- 46. Samasta-raśmi-samyuta/
- 47. The derivative meaning of the word is given in the *Prāṇatoṣiṇī* as follows on the authority of the *Kulārṇava*:

 puṇya-saṃvardhanāccāpi pāpaugha-parihārataḥ/
 puṣkalārthapradānācca puṣpaṃ ityabhidhīyate//

— (p. 232)

Puṣpa is so called as it increases merit, removes a mass of sin and gives sufficient artha (desired objects or money).

- 48. The number of articles stated is six instead of seven.
- 49. For Vaikhari, etc. cf.

mūlādhārāt prathamam udito yastu tāraḥ parākhyaḥ paścāt paśyantyatha hṛdayago buddhiyun madhyamākhyaḥ/ vaktre vaikharyatha rurudiṣorasya jantoḥ suṣumṇā baddhas tasmād bhavati parama prerito varṇasaṃghaḥ//

— Alamkāra-kaustubha The loud sound, called Parā, that at first arises from the Mūlsdhāra (see Glossary), afterwards becomes Paśyanti in the heart, (and), united with intellect, it is called Madhyamā. In the mouth it is Vaikharī. Then, confined in the Suṣumṇā (see Glossary), of a person willing to cry, it becomes a number of letters induced by the Supreme Being.

- 50. For an account of such rites, see Chapter on Magic and Marvel.
- 51. na mānasam bhavet stotram vācikam tu prašasyate!

xxiv.1

- 52. A mystical diagram used as an amulet.
- 53. Spending on rites and sacrificial fees less than what is permitted by one's pecuniary circumstances.
- 54. Belonging to Durbar Library of Nepal.
- 55. Pub. Savită Memorial Series, Varendra Res. Museum, Rajshahi, Bangladesh, 1961.
- 56. For details, see the present author's Tantra in Bengal, 1st ed., p.74.
- 57. There is a work of this title also by Abhinavagupta.
- 58. Ed. K. Mukhopadhyaya, Calcutta, 1383 B.S.
- 59. Between 1741 and 1745 Šaka = 1819-23 A.D.
- 60. For details about him and his work, see C. Chakrabarti in Varigiya Sāhitya Parisat Patrikā, 59, pp. 68-72.
- 61. cf. Statement of the author at the commencement tantrāṇyanekāni vicārya...sāraṃ samuddhṛtya/



karotyayam-pañcamaveda-sāra-nirnayam//

Having considered many Tantras (and) gathered their essence this (author) writes the *Pañcamaveda-sāranirnaya*.

- 62. For details, see C. Chakravarti in Vangīya Sāhitya Parişat Patrikā, 58, iii-iv. Vide V.S.P. MSS No. 1825, 1835, 1867.
- 63. Ed. i. Adi Brāhma Samāj, Calcutta, 1876.
 - ii. Vangavāsī, Calcutta, 1296 B.S. (with Beng. translation).
 - iii. Madras, 1929 (with Comm.)
 - iv. Woodroffe, 1953 (3rd ed.).

Other editions were also published in Calcutta. Prose Eng. translation by M.N. Dutta, Calcutta, 1900, by A. Avalon (with Intro. and Comm.) under the title *Tantra of the Great Liberation*, London, 1913.

- 64. On this question, see Introduction and Preface to the edition and translation of the *Mahānirvāṇa* by A. Avalon, Calcutta, 1913; Madras, 1928; and *Gurutantra*; Saṃśaya-nirāsa, pp. 3-11.
- 65. For details, see text vi. 1 ff.
- 66. This practice was, perhaps, the origin of Vāmācarā.
- 67. Vide text, v. 156.
- 68. See Chap. viii. 5.
- 69. cf. tadanujñām vinā brāhma-vivāham nācaret punah

— ix. 265.

70. cf. brāhmodvāhena yā grāhyā saiva patnī grheśvarī

— ix. 265.

- 71. An expression wishing welfare.
- 72. ix. 278.
- 73. Ibid. For meaning of Sapinda, see P.V. Kane, History of Dharmasāstra, II.
- 74. ix. 279.
- 75. Anuloma father having a caste higher than that of the mother.
- 76. Pratiloma father having a caste lower than that of the mother.
- 77. To be performed before each sacrament and before the foundation of a house, garden, etc.
- 78. A rice-ball offered in Śrāddha.
- 79. Editio Princeps, 1823 (vide Friend of India, Vol. 3, pp. 611-13). There were other editions, too, e.g. Calcutta, 1266 B.S.; Vasumatī ed. Calcutta, 1335 B.S.
- 80. On his life, see Sāhityika Varşapañjī, 1383 B.S., p. 45.



- 81. cf. brāhmo vivāho vihito doṣahīnaḥ savarṇayā/
 brāhmodvāhena yā grāhā saiva patnī gṛheśvarī//
 --- Page 93, Calcutta ed., 1266 B.S.
- 82. Madhuka longifolia.
- 83. It may mean spirit distilled from flowers of the *madhūka* tree or from grapes. In either case, it appears to be a repetition of *madhūka* above.
- 84. See last chapter.
- 85. It means hemp. Hemp may denote what is called in Bengali gānjā, bhāng, siddhi.
- 86. The following 36 tattvas are accepted in Tantra: Śiva, Śakti, Sadāśiva, Ĭśvara, Vidyā (Avidyā) Kālī, Māyā, Kāla, Niyati, Śuddhavidyā, Rāga, Puruṣa (Jīva), Prakṛti, Ahaṃkāra, Buddhi, Manas, five sensory organs, five motor organs, five tanmātras, five bhūtas.
- 87. See Calcutta Asiatic Soc. Cat., VIII, 6209.
- 88. Ibid., p. xxxv.
- 89. Ibid., p. xxxvi.
- 90. Ibid., 6350.
- 91. Ibid., 6192.
- 92. For life and works of Kāśīnātha, see Sāhitya Pariṣat Patrikā, Calcutta, Vol. 45, pp. 222-231, Vol. 46, p. 80.
- 93. Calcutta Asiatic Soc. Cat., VIII, Serial No. 6230.
- 94. See S.C. Banerji in New Indian Antiquary, VII, Nos. 5 and 6, 1944.



V. Principal Topics of Bengal Tantra

We have briefly described the contents of the Tantras produced in Bengal. We propose here to deal with the important topics so as to bring to a bold relief the views of Bengal writers on the same. The topics, to be taken up here, are as follows: Guru-Śiṣya, Dikṣā, Pañcatattva, Mantra, Puraścaraṇa, Japamālā, Siddhi, Pūjā, Balidāna Antaryāga, Śaiva-vivāha, recognised subjects of study, Deha-tattva, Śavasādhana, Yoginī-sādhana, Bhāvas, Cakras, Yoga, position of women and Śūdras, curbs on self-indulgence, Bengal Tantra vis-à-vis Dharmasāstra.

Guru-Śisya1

All the works are unanimous in according the most exalted place to the guru. His position is much higher than that of even one's father. In Tantric rites, a person should seek the help of his guru; such rites performed by one's Purohita become futile. He is to be considered as Siva or Para Brahman incarnate. In order to be a guru, a person has to acquire many qualities of the head and the heart.

One's father or brother cannot be one's guru. The husband cannot be the guru of his wife unless he is siddha-mantra.

It is interesting to note that a woman, with requisite qualifications, can be a guru. Initiation by a woman, possessed of requisite qualities, is said to be salutary (subha). Eight times more efficacious is dikṣā by one's mother. It appears that a widow, and a woman having no son, cannot be gurus. As regards initiation by one's mother, it is said that if she gives her own mantra to the son, then the latter can acquire the eight well-known Siddhis.²

The Mahānirvāņa (x. 200f) provides that a Śākta, Śaiva, Vaiṣṇava, Saura and a Gāṇapata are preferable as gurus of people of these sects respectively. But, a Kaula is the best guru for all.

On the authority of the Sārasaṃgraha, cited in the Sāktānandataraṅginī, the Prāṇastoṣiṇī appears to hold that only a dvija can be a guru.³

Gurus are of two kinds—Dikṣā-guru and Śikṣā-guru. He is the supreme guru from whom is learnt the mahāmantra. According to an authority, cited in the Prāṇatoṣiṇi, gurus are sixfold, viz. preraka, sūcaka, vācaka, darśaka, śikṣaka, bodhaka. It appears that one can have only one person as guru.



Persons of the following kinds are unfit for being gurus: afflicted with leucoderma, leprosy, optical diseases, dwarf, possessed of bad nails and teeth, henpecked, having more or less limbs than usual, fraudulent, diseased, extremely greedy, garrulous, accursed, sonless, miserly, addicted to gambling, devoid of prescribed practices, wicked, speaking ill of guru, jala-rakta vikāra (?).

A person, endowed with many virtues, can be a Śiṣya. He should be quiet, modest, pure, respectful, meritorious, capable of doing many kinds of work, born of a good family, wise, possessed of good character, pious, self-restrained, charitably disposed and given to meditation. He incurs sin by looking upon the guru as a human being, by speaking ill of him and by showing disrespect towards him. It is interesting to note that, while implicit obedience to the guru is ordained, and the desertion of guru is condemned on pain of prāyaścitta, the Tantras allow a Śiṣya to desert his guru who proves to be incompetent or undesirable. On authority, the Prāṇatoṣiṇī says that as a bee, desiring honey, goes from one flower to another, so a Śiṣya, should go from one guru to another in quest of knowledge.

Persons of the following description are unfit for being disciples: Sinful, cruel, wicked, miserly, mean, devoid of good conduct, hater of mantra, speaking ill, foolish, hateful of holy places, devoid of respect for guru, having an impure heart, idle, boastful, poor, diseased, irate, addicted to pleasures of sense, jealous, harsh-tongued, possessed of ill-got wealth, having relation with another man's wife, hostile to the learned, pedantic, earning livelihood with great trouble, highly ambitious, condemned by people.

It is interesting to note that the Mahānirvāṇa (Ullāsa III) provides for brahma-dīkṣā as the highest form of initiation. A member of any sect—Sākta, Śaiva, Vaiṣṇava, Saura or Gāṇapatya is entitled to it. Members of all castes are eligible. The usual restrictions imposed in connexion with dīkṣā, are waived in brahma-dīkṣā. So the father can initiate the son, the brother can initiate the brother, the maternal uncle can initiate his nephew (bhāgineya), the husband his wife and the maternal grandfather his grandson. One can even, contrary to the usual practice, give one's own mantra to the disciple. In short, no Śāstric injunctions and prohibitions apply to this form of dīkṣā.

Diksa

Tantric $diks\bar{a}$ (initiation) is unavoidable in a man's life. All the rites, performed by an uninitiate, are supposed to be futile, and such a person is doomed to hell. As a person, not initiated to Vedic studies by *Upanayana*, has no right to the performance of Vedic rites, so one without Tantric $diks\bar{a}$ is not entitled to the performance of Tantric rites and rituals. $Diks\bar{a}$ is threefold, viz. $s\bar{a}mbhavi$, $s\bar{a}kteyi$ and $m\bar{a}ntri$.

While mentioning these broad kinds of dikṣā, the Prāṇatoṣiṇī quotes several texts in which we find a number of kinds some of which are included in the above three categories.

According to some, dikṣā is threefold, viz. Āṇavi, Śāktī and Śāmbhavī. The first is said to consist in mantra, arcanā (worship), āsana (sitting postures of particular kinds), nyāsa,6 dhyāna and upacāras (various articles which are offered).7 It is subdivided into ten kinds, viz.—

- (i) Smarti—in it the disciple remembers the guru, living in a foreign land, and is freed from sin.
- (ii) Mānasī—in it the disciple beholds the guru seated in front of himself and is purified mentally.
- (iii) Yaugi—the guru, in the manner laid down in Yogasāstra, enters the body of the disciple and unites his soul with his own body.
- (iv) Cākṣuṣī—it consists in looking with eyes, filled with compassion, having become sure that 'I am Śiva'.
- (v) Spāršiki—in it the guru, considering himself as Supreme Śiva, touches the mantra of the disciple on the head with Śivahasta.*
- (vi) Vāciki—in it the guru, having considered own mouth as the mouth of the sisya, affectionately gives, through his mouth the divine mantra along with yantra and nyāsa, etc.
 - (vii) Mantri or-Mantriki.9
- (viii) Hautrī—it is done after putting fire in a Kuṇḍa or Sthandila.10
- (ix) Sastri—it is given to a worthy disciple who is devoted and engaged in the service of guru along with Sastric knowledge.
- (x) Abhisecika—in this form, Siva and His consort are zealously worshipped in a pitcher, and the water of the pitcher is sprinkled over the disciple.

A person receiving them is called abhişikta. One, reaching the highest stage, is called pūrņābhişikta. 11



The Viśvasāra-tantra, quoted in the Prāṇatoṣiṇī, mentions four kinds of dikṣā, viz, kriyāvatī, kalāvatī, varṇamayī and bedhamayī.

The Prāṇatoṣiṇi describes kriyāvati and varṇamayi. It says that kalāvati is given in the Tantrasāra and that bedhamayi is obsolete. The author refers the inquisitive reader to the fifth Paṭala (chapter) of the Śāradātilaka.

On the authority of the Kāmākhyā-tantra (Paṭala 32), the Prāṇatoṣiṇi speaks of krama-dikṣā without which no siddhi is possible in Kālī Age. It appears to consist in the successive worship of Kālī, Tārā and Sundarī. In this form, the disciple is to practise self-restraint on the first day and fast on the second. The guru will initiate him on the third day.

Some of the places, condemnend for dikṣā by Kṛṣṇānanda, are as follows: Gayā Bhāskara-kṣetra (Konarak), Viraja, Candra-parvata (Candraśekhara hill), Caṭṭala (Chittagong), Mataṅga, Kanyāśrama. Some take Kanyāśrama to mean Kumārītīrtha in Kānyakubja or Kanauj.

Certain months, nakṣatras and tithis are declared as auspicious. But, no such consideration is necessary in the period from the bodhana (awakening) up to Navamī in the autumnal worship of Durgā. No consideration of auspicious time is necessary in Prayāga, Kāśī, Śri-parvata, Kurukṣetra and other very holy places (mahātirtha). The same rule applies if dūkṣā takes place on one's birthday, marriage-day, on the day of solar or lunar eclipse. At the command of the guru, dūkṣā can take place at any time.

The Mahānirvāņa (Ullāsa iii) prescribes Brahmadīkṣā as superior to all other kinds of dikṣā. In it, the guru initiates the śiṣya to the meditation of Brahman, the Supreme Being. The Brahma-gāyatrī is as follows: parameśvarāya vidmahe, paratattvāya dhīmahi, tanno brahma pracodayāt.

In connexion with dikṣā, the following practices are held to be reprehensible and disastrous: learning of mantra by chance, in hiding, through stratagem, by looking at writing. Proper initiation by a guru is insisted upon.

Paficatativa

The usual five accessories to Tantric Sadhana are recognised in Bengal Tantra.



Surā (wine) is of three kinds, viz. gauḍī, mādhvī and paiṣṭi distilled respectively from molasses, honey and rice. It is noteworthy that a Brāhmaṇa should never offer wine to the goddess nor drink it. For Brāhmaṇas the substitutes (anukalpa) are molasses with ginger (guḍārdraka), honey, milk, coconut-water. Even Kṣatriyas and Vaiśyas are not allowed to take any intoxicating drink; they can drink the juice of makaranda-phala. Kṛṣṇānanda explains the provision, made by certain authorities, for the compulsory drinking of wine as applicable to only those who belong to the fourth stage of life or saṃnyāsa (tattu caturthāsramipadam).

The Mahānirvāṇa (viii. 170-71) ordains that a householder should offer to goddess madhura-traya (i.e. milk, sugar and honey) as substitutes for wine. This seems to imply that the offer of wine is implied only for Sādhakas who have renounced the gārhasthyāsrama. The same work, however, provides (vi. 193 ff.) that a grhastha sādhaka should drink only as much wine as can be contained in five drinking vessels. It is stated that if a Kulasādhaka indulges in excessive drinking, his Siddhi is hampered. Only as much should be drunk as does not cause rolling of the eyes. Drinking beyond the permissible limit is like drinking by a beast. The work further ordains (vi. 193) that a Kula woman should not drink wine; for her, the smell of wine amounts to the drinking of it.

The Prāṇatoṣiṇī cites many authorities, e.g. Utpatti-tantra, Mātṛkābheda-tantra, to establish that a Brāhmaṇa incurs no sin by drinking wine; on the contrary, it is his bounden duty in certain Tāntric rites. Surā (wine) is said to be conducive to great welfare, physical and spiritual, and the derivative meaning of the term is given as follows: suratvaṃ bhogamātreṇa surā tena prakīrtitā. Surā is so called as it imparts suratva (divinity) to one as soon as it is drunk. The Prāṇatoṣiṇī observes that the texts prohibiting the drinking of wine on the part of Brāhmaṇas relate to wine which is not formally sanctified (asaṃskṛta) or which is abhiśapta¹⁵ (accursed) or not offered in worship. Or, the prohibition may apply to a Brāhmaṇa who has not undergone the rite of abhiṣeka. The work quotes the following verse from Manusmṛti in support of his contention that no offence is committed by any person by drinking wine:

na māmsa-bhakṣaṇe doṣo na madye na ca maithune! v. 56 Wine appears to be divided into two classes, viz. madya and surā, the former seems to be a simple intoxicant while the latter causes a far



greater degree of intoxication. The following couplet mentions eleven kinds of madya:

pānasam drākṣa-mādhukam khārjūram tālam aikṣavam/ mahūttam sīdhu-mādhvīkam maireyam nārikelajam//

These are stated to be conducive to enjoyment and salvation (bhuktimuktikarāni).

The following three are called surā:

Gaudi-fermentation of molasses,

Paisti-distilled from rice,

Madhvi-distilled from honey.

The first is conducive to enjoyment, the second leads to all success (sarva-siddhikari) and the third causes salvation.

The work states that the anukalpa (substitute) of wine should be offered to goddess only when wine is not available. Thus, it appears that, while the early Bengal Tantras condemn wine for Brāhmaṇas, the latest notable compilation, called *Prānatosini*, approves it.

As regards māmsa, Bengal Tantra prescribes the meat of certain beasts, birds and aquatic creatures. The derivative meaning of the word māmsa is given below according to the Prānatoṣiṇī which cites the authority of the Kulārnava in this respect:

māngalya-jananād devi samvid ānanda-dānād / sarvadeva-priyatvācca māmsa ityabhidhlyate //

[Māṃsa¹⁷ (meat) is so called, O Goddess as it produces welfare, gives consciousness and bliss and is dear to all gods.]

Meat par excellence (mahāmāṃsa), according to the Tantrasāra is that of the following: cow, human being, sheep, horse, buffalo, boar, goat and deer. Another authority reads godhā (iguana; gosāp in Bengali) and uṣṭra (camel) in place of human being and boar. Female beasts are prohibited. As regards the meat of human being, the Prāṇatoṣiṇī appears to prohibit it. The idea, underlying the prohibition, seems to be that human sacrifice may be obstructed or resisted by others. In another context it is prohibited for Brāhmaṇas. 19

As substitutes for meat are prescribed the following: salt, ginger, oil cake, sesamum, wheat, pulse called *māsa* and gartic.

So far as fish is concerned, it is divided, in the $Pr\bar{a}natosini$, into three categories, viz. uttama (best), madhyama (medium) and adhama (worst). Those of the first class are $S\bar{a}la$, $P\bar{a}thina$ and Rohita. To the second class belong the old ones, those devoid of bones, fatty and those having scales. The worst are those which are small. According to the



Mahānirvāṇa, those devoid of bones belong to the second class and those full of bones are the worst. It, however, ordains that even the worst kinds of fish may be offered to the goddess if these are fried very well. The derivative meaning of matsya is given as follows in the Prānatosinī on the authority of the Kulārnava:

māyā-malādi-śamanān-mokṣa-mārga-nirūpaṇāt /
aṣṭaduḥkhādi-virahān-matsyeti parikīrtitaḥ //

Matsya is so called as it puts a stop to illusion, sin, etc., determines the way to salvation, and causes the cessation of the eightfold misery.

On the authority of the Kulārṇava and the Yāmala, the Tantrasāra divides mudrā into two classes, viz.

- (i) Kṛṣara—'a dish consisting of sesamum and grain (mixture of rice and peas with a few spices)' Monier Williams. It is kept in a circular shape, and looks like the orb of the moon and is filled with sugar, etc.
 - (ii) Fried paddy, etc.—it is so fried that it can be chewed.

The Mahānirvāna (vi. 9) speaks of three classes of mudrā:

- (i) Uttama—white like the orb of the moon, prepared with Sali rice or barley or wheat, cooked with ghee, beautiful to look at.
 - (ii) Madhyama—prepared with fried paddy and the like.
 - (iii) Adhama—prepared with other fried grains.

Regarding the fifth *Tattva*, i.e. sexual union, it appears that only a woman, who is initiated, should be resorted to. Such a woman should at first be subjected to *abhiṣeka*. From the *Mahānirvāṇa* (vi. 14 and 20) and other Tantras it appears that one is allowed to use others' wives (parakīyā śakti) besides one's own wife. From an authority, cited in the *Prāṇatoṣiṇi*, ²⁰ it appears that one sādhaka should take to only one Śakti (woman) who will serve as the fifth *Tattva*.

Mantra

As stated elsewhere, mantra plays a very important role in the life and rites of an adherent of Tantra. Care has been taken to ensure the correct pronunciation and precise application of mantras. The Tantrasāra states several defects which render mantras sterile. Some of these defects are chinna (torn), ruddha (obstructed), śaktihīna (devoid of power), etc. A mantra, with or without vāyu-bīja (yaṃ) at the beginning, middle and end, or if it has long vowels thrice, four times or five times, is chinna. That mantra, which has two prthivī-bījas (laṃ) at the



beginning, middle or end, is called ruddha. A mantra, devoid of māyābija (hrīm), tritattva or phrem, is saktihīna.

Procedures have been prescribed for removing the defects of mantras in order to make them fruitful.

Mantras have been classed as male, female and neuter (napum-saka). Mantras of different classes are stated to be effective in different rites.

In connexion with mantras, we should mention bijas which are symbolical. Different bijas are to be used in different rites and in the worship of various deities. Bijas are numerous, and have varying designations. Some of them are Māyā, Lajjā, Śambhu-vanitā, Vahni, Lakṣmī, Candra Vadhū, Kāli, etc. The symbolical expressions are hrim, hlim, śrīm, aim, strīm, etc.

It is interesting to note that mantras are imagined to possess different limbs like face, ear, etc., and internal organs like the heart. For example, pranava (omkāra) is regarded as the face of a mantra. The vowels are the heart.

Purascarana

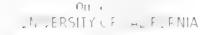
It is an important topic of discussion in Bengal Tantra. We set forth below a brief account of it.

Regarding the derivative meaning of the term, the Mahānila-tantra (Paṭala 26), cited in some works, says — pūryate caraṇaṃ tasya japa-homādi- tarpaṇaih. It is so called as, in it, by means of japa, homa and tarpaṇa, the feet of one's desired deity are filled; 'tasya' in the text means sveṣṭadevasya. In some Tantras, e.g., Yāmala, it is so-called as it is to be done first of all (puratah) for the success of mantras.

It is stated to consist of five accessories (anga), viz. Japa, Homa, Tarpana, Abhiseka (bath), Brāhmana-bhojana. Japa is threefold, viz. mānasa, upāmsu and vācika. In mānasa-japa, one has to repeat mentally the syllables of a mantra after comprehending its meaning. In upāmsu-japa, the devotee, with his mind concentrated on the deity, slightly moves his tongue and lips and his mutterings are slightly audible. In vācika-japa, a mantra is audibly repeated. Of these, the first kind is the best, the second medium and the third worst.

The number of japa, homa, tarpaṇa, etc., varies in the cases of different deities. For example, japa will be for a lac of times in the case of Dakṣiṇakālikā and homa will be one-tenth of it. For propitiating Tārā, japa will be for four lac times and homa one-tenth of it.





The number of tarpaṇa is one-tenth of that of homa and the number of abhiṣeka is one-tenth of that of tarpaṇa. In Gopāla-mantra, the number of tarpaṇa is like that of homa. Generally tarpaṇa should be performed with water mixed with aguru, karpūra, madhu, dugdha, ghṛta, etc. According to the Gautamīya Tantra, with water should be mixed madhu, karpūra and ghṛta or dugdha in the cases of Śakti, Viṣṇu and Śiva.

Abhiseka is to be performed with water perfumed with karpura and the like.

As regards Brāhmaṇas to be fed, there are injunctions about their suitability. An uninitiated Brāhmaṇa is not suitable. For the followers of Kulācāra only Brāhmaṇas, initiated according to the Kula rites, should be entertained. As regards their number, it should be one-tenth of the number of abhiṣekas.

The accessories are stated to range from one $(ek\bar{a}nga)$ to eighteen $(ast\bar{a}das\bar{a}nga)$ in accordance with different kinds of devotees. Vira purascarana consists of seven angas, the sixth and seventh being $Saktip\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ and $Kum\bar{a}ri-p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ respectively. Sixteen accessories are for the Kaulikas and eighteen for the Aghorins.

Brāhmaṇa-bhojana is very important, nay, indispensable excepting in connexion with Mañju-ghoṣa-mantra. Homa, tarpaṇa and abhiṣeka can be, in the event of inability, substituted by japa twice the number of them. For example, if the number of homas be 10,000 that of japa will be 20,000. But, there can be no substitute for the feeding of Brāhmaṇas. If there be any lapse in the performance of the rite, amends may be made by fully satisfying a Brāhmaṇa devotee with a sumptuous feast. But, sin is incurred by feeding a Brāhmaṇa who is not initiated and the rite becomes futile.

Without purascarana, success in mantras cannot be achieved. It must be done even at the expense of one's all. The Mundamālā-tantra, however, provides that, for one in indigent circumstances, mere japa serves the purpose of purascarana. Deceitful economy (vittasāthya) has been condemned. If a person is himself unable, he should get it done by his guru or any other sādhaka who may even be a female.

Different periods of time are auspicious for purascaraņa relating to mantras of different deities. For example, the bright half of the month is propitious for Viṣṇu, but dakṣiṇāyana is prohibited. Both the bright and dark halves are auspicious for Sakti-mantra; dakṣiṇāyana is also good. Solar and lunar eclipses are conducive to good effects of



purascarana. The months Kārtika, Āśvina, Vaiśākha, Māgha, Agrahāyana, Phālguna and Śrāvana are particularly auspicious. The fortnight in autumn, in which Śaradīyā pūjā is performed, is specially commended.

Different places are suitable for different deities in connexion with purascaraṇa. For instance, in connexion with Viṣṇu-mantra, Ayodhyā, Mathurā, Māyā, Kāśī, Vadarikāśrama, Gayā, Gaṇḍakī-tīra, Dvārakā are auspicious. For Śaiva-mantra are commended Kedāra Tryambaka, Kāśī, Kāncī, Gaṅgā-tīra, Vaidyanātha, Rāmeśvara. For Śakti-mantra, auspicious are Jvālāmukhī, Prayāga, Kāmini, Mālikā, Sarasvatī-tīra.

Generally speaking, the following places are auspicious for purascarana: Kṣetratīrtha, forest, garden, temple, river, lake, cottage, lonely spot, house of the guru, holy place, cowshed, Siddha-pīṭha, a place near young women, confluence of rivers, particularly Gaṅgā-sāgara-saṅgama, a place near chaste women and pious people, roots of trees known as kula-vṛkṣa.²² For Divya-vīras, particularly effective are cremation ground, empty house, Mundāsana,²³ mountain-cave etc.

Particularly effective is *purascarana* at midnight and midday at the following places: root of the *Vata* tree, forest, cremation ground, empty house, crossing of four roads.

Among the places prohibited are a river which does not flow into a sea, dilapidated temple, root of a decayed tree, stagnant river, ground with hole, cultivated land, barren land, a place full of Mlecchas, wicked people and ferocious animals, a place where the king's men or influential people move about, another's house, etc.

Among the practices prohibited during purascarana are over-eating, garrulity, laziness, excessive sleep or wakefulness, day-sleep, listening to vocal and instrumental music, witnessing dance, eating of betel-leaves, etc., use of unguents, holding unconsecrated flowers, untruth, crookedness, killing of animals, association of heretics and the wicked, touch of dogs, etc., eating food not offered to deities, acceptance of gifts, eating food received from others.

For women there is considerable relaxation of the rules regarding the practices permitted and prohibited. If they are unable to practise Nyāsa, etc., according to rules, they can attain success by mere japa with devotion.

Guru, the embodiment of Supreme Brahman, plays a prominent role in purascarana as, indeed, in the entire Tantric system. The rite must be preceded and followed by guru-pūjā. The first thing on the day



of commencement is the salutation of the guru or, in his absence, of his wife or son. If none of them is available, one related to the guru is to be pleased with the gift of land, money, clothes, etc. according to one's capacity. If the guru is present, he will perform worship, etc. In his absence, his son will do these things. If even the latter is not available, the wife of the guru will perform the acts. If she does so, there will be no necessity of balidana and homa. In the absence of all of them, a person himself will do the needful. Utterly futile will be all rites performed by any Tantric sādhaka or purohita engaged by a person without the permission of his guru.

During purascaraņa one has to worship the deity by day. Those, who have undergone pūrņābhiṣeka, as well as those, who have adopted virabhāva, worship at night is also prescribed.

Kumāri-pūjā²⁴ is a must in purascaraņa; otherwise pūjā, japa, homa, etc. become futile. All gods are said to be pleased with kumāri-pūjā. A maiden girl is to be entertained in the beginning, middle and at the end of purascaraṇa, with sandal paste, flowers, various dishes, clothes, ornaments, gold, silver, etc. A person is regarded as particularly fortunate if he gets a maiden girl who is initiated or has undergone the Tāntric rite called abhiṣeka. A girl, aged seven, eight or nine, is especially commended. The girls, acceptable for the purpose, are those possessed of bright complexion, of high castes having both parents alive and those who have not had sexual intercourse nor have thought of association with a man. The girls, prohibited for the purpose, are of the following descriptions: having dark complexion, long teeth, scanty brow-hairs, more or less limbs than usual, too much hair on body, uncouth appearance, squint-eyed, lame, irate disposition, blind, born of a female slave or maidservant, greedy and wicked.

Like Kumāri-pūjā, Śakti-pūjā is also ordained in the beginning, middle and at the end of puraścaraṇa. Eight Śaktis, mentioned in the Kulacūḍāmaṇi, are: Brāhmaṇi, Kṣatriyā, Vaiśyā, Śūdrā, Veśyā, Nāpita-kanyā, Rajakī, Naṭakī. After mentioning these eight women, it states that any family woman, endowed with special accomplishments, may be regarded as a Śakti. One authority provides the worship of any Śakti in the absence of Kula-śakti. A Śakti, though younger in age, inferior in caste, should be duly worshipped. A woman, possessed of children, or a widow may be a Śakti. If other Śaktis be not available, one should worship one's daughter, younger sister, mother, stepmother or maternal aunt. An initiated Śakti is preferable to an uninitiated one; the latter,



however, is to be selected in the absence of the former. The Sakti is to be worshipped as a goddess; lust towards her is highly reprehensible.

In the case of japa for 10,000 times, the fee (dakṣiṇā) is one suvarṇa and of japa for one lac times it is ten suvarṇas; one suvarṇa is equivalent to 80 Ratis. One who can afford should give away his all as fee or half of one's total earnings. The rite is stated to be futile if fee is not paid according to one's capacity.

In the *Purascaraṇa-ratnākara*, the author describes the means of achieving success quickly. He however, warns the reader that these means should be resorted to under the guidance of one's *guru* or of a person who is a veteran in these practices. These means are as follows:

- (1) Bilva-mūla-sādhana: The sādhaka should go, at the expiry of the first watch of the night of amāvasyā, caturdasī, aṣṭamī, pūrṇimā or saṃkrānti or on Tuesday, to the root of a Bel tree and perform this sādhana.
- (2) Śayyā-sādhana: At midnight, the sādhaka being naked should perform śayyā-saṃskāra after causing his own wife or that of another to sit on the bed decked with fragrant flowers. Those, who have elaborately performed śayyā-sādhana, can perform japa, pūjā, puraścaraṇa, etc., on the bed.
- (3) Munda-sādhana: In it, the sādhaka is required to sit on mundas (heads, rather skulls). As regards the creatures, whose mundas are suitable, the Yogini-tantra mentions human being, buffalo, cat; in such a case, one each or three in all are prescribed. As an alternative, three human mundas serve the purpose. In case of five mundas, one each of the following is necessary: jackal, snake, dog, monkey, human being. An alternative to it is an aggregate of five human mundas. In the case of the latter, even a crore may be used. The heads are to be buried and an altar of the prescribed dimensions should be constructed over them.

According to the Śakti-saṃgama-tantra, even one muṇḍa may serve the purpose.

As regards the human heads, those of Candalas and the like appear to be best and those of \hat{Su} draw worst.

As an alternative to the trimunda āsana, stated above, one may use one head each of human beings, jackal and monkey.

As an alternative to pañca-muṇḍa, mentioned above, sādhakas appear to prescribe two human heads, one head each of a jackal, a monkey and a snake.





The places, suitable for munda-sādhana, appear to be almost identical with those prescribed for $\hat{S}ava-s\bar{a}dhana$ (q. v.). As regards the kinds of persons, whose heads are suitable, they are almost the same as prescribed for use as corpses in $\hat{S}avas\bar{a}dhana$ (q. v).

(4) Smasana-sadhana: This is suitable in the following periods of time; astami and caturdasi in both dark and bright fortnights, the former being more suitable, Tuesday night after the expiry of the first watch. A cremation ground, which has not been cleansed and washed, is the best.

If the sādhaka is afraid, he may place armed friends and other sādhakas a little distance away.

(5) Sava-sādhana: Described elsewhere.

Japamālā

Rosaries are used by Tantric devotees at the time of Japa. We find descriptions of the various kinds of rosaries in Bengal Tantra. Rosaries are broadly divided into three classes, viz. Sthira, Cara and Karamālikā. These are briefly described below.

Varṇamālā is called Sthira or Akalpitā. A rosary, made with the letters of the alphabet from a to kṣa, is called varṇamālā. The following source-letters (māṭrkā-varṇa), followed by anusvāra, are fifty in number: all vowels, short and long, and AM, AH; the five vargas KA, CA, TA, TA, PA; the four semi-vowels, the three sibilants, sonant aspirate HA followed by a second LA. After these fifty comes KṢA which is called Meru.

Each māṭṛkā-varṇa, with anusvāra added to it, has got to be recited or repeated with the mūla or bija-mantra. For example, in the japa of the mantra, HRĪM, one has to recite AM HRĪM, ĀM HRIM and so on. Then KṢAM should be recited without the mūlamantra. After this, one has to recite HRĪM preceded by each of the māṭṛkā letters in the reverse order; e.g. LAM HRĪM, HAM HRIM and so on. Thus, one hundred japas are completed. For eight japas, the following should precede the bīja-mantra. AM, KAM, CAM, TAM, TAM, PAM, YAM, SAM. According to some, the following should precede the bījamantra: AH, ŅAM, NAM, NAM, NAM, NAM, NAM, VAM, LAM. In the opinion of others, the following eight, followed by Anusvāra, should precede the bījamantra in eight japas: R, R, L, L, L, R, R.

Another kind of varnamātā is to be made conceiving Kulakundalinī or Brahmanādī as the thread.25 It is to be further fancied that



Kundalinī, raised up to the Sahasrāra, is entwining Parama Śiva as a rosary.

One has to hold the breath during japa. If one is unable to do so in a hundred japas, one may practise japa for fifty, twenty-five or even eight times.

 $Varnam\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ has been praised as the best kind of rosary. Its substitute is $Samkham\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ (q. v.), Japa in $varnam\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ can be done at any place, pure or impure, and at any time and in the presence of all.

Carā or Kalpitā mālā is made with crystal, Rudrākṣa beads, etc. It may be of three kinds, viz. Uttama (containing 108 or 109 beads), Madhyama (55 beads), Adhama (28 beads). Such a rosary may contain any of the following number of beads according to necessity: 100, 50, 30, 27, 15, 14, 10, etc.

In such a mālā, beads may be of any one of the following, besides those stated above: gold, silver, copper, pearl, coral, padmākṣa, indrākṣa, red sandal, myrobalan, Tulasī-wood, turmeric, rāja-danta (i.e., the four teeth in front), ivory, conchshell, mahāśankha (q. v) etc. Different rosaries are commended in different rites. Varying results are said to accrue from different kinds of rosary. In one rosary, there should not be a conglomeration of many jewels. The rosary should always be concealed and never held in hand, head or neck.

For ordinary use are commended rosaries of the wood of Myrobalan, *Tulasi*, Sandal, Bel, etc.

Generally speaking, Tulasi-mālā is prescribed for Viṣṇu-mantra and Gajadanta-mālā for Gaṇeśa-mantra. In Kālī-mantra and all other mantras, metallic rosaries or those made with crystal, Rudrākṣa, etc. are commended. Mahāśankha-mālā is prescribed for certain devī-mantras, e.g. Chinnamastā-mantra. It is also prescribed for Śiva-mantra.

Karamālā-japa is the name given to japa by touching the thumb from the middle parvan²⁶ of the ring finger to the root of the forefinger. Karamālā is prescribed for all kinds of japa—nitya, naimittika and kāmya. Karamālā-japa can be done anywhere and at any time. In some Tantras, Karamālā has been praised as better than all kinds of akṣamālā.

In a rosary, the beads should be beautiful and absolutely free from defect. A rosary should be made to resemble a cow's tail or a serpent. After each bead there should be a knot (granthi). A rosary, devoid of knots, is generally forbidden. But, certain authorities recommend such rosaries in connexion with certain deities, e.g. Kālī, Tārā, etc.



The japamālā should be preserved in a bag resembling a cow's face (gomukha), made of silk cloth, fur or, in some cases, of leather of deer or sheep. The colour of the gomukha may be red, yellow or gairika (colour of red chalk or red ochre).

One is liable to expiation if one's $japam\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ is stolen, burnt or otherwise spoilt.

Mahāśamkha (or, Rahasya) Mālā

Mahāśaṃkha is the name given to a bone of the human skull which has not been burnt. According to the Triśaktiratna, it is the name of a bone intervening between the ears and the eyes. In the absence of such a bone, the bone of any part may be used. From certain texts, mahāśaṃkha appears to denote also a bone of the forehead or bones of fingers. A mālā, made of māhāśaṃkha, is recommended for Virācārins in certain special rites, e.g. mārana, uccāṭana, etc. It is also prescribed for puraścaraṇa in certain cases. Such a mālā is said to produce instantaneous effect. Eight kinds of siddhi are stated to be possible by its use.

From a text of the *Yamala*, it appears that bones of the skulls of elephants, horses and camels, killed in battle, may also be used for the purpose. The bones of the following persons are suitable:

Killed by thunder-stroke, snake-bite, tigers, drowned in water, slain while fighting in a battle, Caṇḍālas and the like are said to be the most suitable and Śūdras, etc. worst. The corpse of a young and dark-complexioned person and even a Brāhmaṇa will do.

The corpses of people of the following descriptions are to be avoided:

Those who died as a result of famine, disease, suicide, a two-year old boy, woman, dvija, 28 leper, too old, one who died seven days ago.

Siddhi

Ordinarily, *siddhi* means success. In Tantra it also means power. The Tantras of Bengal name several *siddhis* (powers), and lay down the means to their attainment.

The various siddhis consist in the power of understanding the significance of the cries of the birds called Khanjana, Mayūra, Sārasa, Kapota, Țițtibha, Koka (ruddy goose), Hamsa, Vidyādhara, aquatic birds, the beasts called Kṛkalāsa (chameleon), Vallī (=godhikā), bhūcaras (animals like lion, tiger, elephant, buffalo, etc. living on



land). Kankāla-siddhi appears to mean the power of destroying enemies by propitiating Kālī. Kṣemankarī-siddhi seems to mean the power of understanding the significance of the voice of favourable women.

Other powers include the knowledge of the meaning of the cries of cats, mice, jackals, dogs, frogs, godhā (gosāp in Bengal), cows, deer, sheep, goats, wild cats, bears, crows, cranes, sparrows, parrots, cocks, cakoras and insects. Vāksiddhi (power of uttering infallible speech) is also stated. One is said to acquire great powers like mantra-siddhi or power of making mantras fruitful, by resorting to certain practices on the bed, at the root of the Bel tree and at the crossing of three or four roads.

It should be noted that the eight well-known siddhis viz. animā, laghimā, etc., have also been stated and means to their acquisition prescribed.

Puja

Bengal Tantra ordains both internal $(m\bar{a}nasa)^{30}$ and external $(b\bar{a}hya)$ $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}s$, with a preference for the former.

For use in $P\bar{u}ja$ the number of $upac\bar{a}ras$ (materials), according to the $Tantras\bar{a}ra$, may be 64, 18, 16, 10 or $5.^{31}$ Different results are stated to accrue from the offer of jewels, pearls, garments of various kinds, etc.

Flowers appear to be the common factor in all the categories of upacāras. Different kinds of flowers are prescribed for different deities and in different seasons. Certain flowers are said to be especially suitable by day or at night. Generally stale flowers are forbidden. But, an exception is made in the case of certain species, e.g. Padma, Campaka. It appears that stale buds of flowers are allowed. Flowers, once smelt, are prohibited. Also regarded as very sinful is the worship of deities with flowers grown in a temple. In $gupta-p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, secret worship, certain flowers only can be used.

Generally flowers which are torn or broken (chinna-bhinna) are prohibited. This prohibition does not seem to apply to Jātīpuṣpa.

Usually, flowers, naturally dropped on the earth, are forbidden. But, such *Bakula* and *Śephāli* flowers are allowed. Tabooed are flowers devoid of fragrance and those whose petals are less than three. Grave sin is said to be incurred by plucking flowers after bath at midday.

In the absence of flowers, fruits can be offered as substitutes. If even fruits are not available, leaves serve the purpose. While stale

leaves are generally forbidden, this prohibition does not apply to certain leaves, e.g. bilvapatra, tulasī.

In worship, Bengal Tantra seems to lay greater stress on devotion, on mental attitude than on external substances. The *Tantrasāra* cites the authority of the *Navaratneśvara* which clearly asks the *Sādhaka* of steadfast mind (*sthira-mānasa*) to repeat the appropriate *mantra* in the absence of the 64 *upacāras*; such repetition (*japa*) will ensure the intended effect.

In this connexion, it is interesting to note the significance of the terms puspa, dhūpa, dipa and naivedya as found in the Prāṇatoṣiṇī.

Puṣpa is so called as it increases merit (puṇya), removes multitudes of sin (pāpaugha), puskalārtha (enough of money) and gives.

Dhūpa is so named as it removes great evil arising from putrid smell (dhūtāśeṣa-mahādoṣa-pūti-gandha-prabhāvataḥ), and causes immense joy.

Dipa is so called as it checks the darkness of delusion, prevents decay and (re)birth and grants a divine form.

Naivedya is so designated as, by its nivedana (offer), the deity is pleased.

It is interesting to note that betel-leaves constitute one of the *upacāras*. But, those grown on the following trees, are forbidden.

Kalivrkşa, Panasa (jack-fruit), Asoka, Śalmali.

The author of the *Prāṇatoṣiṇī* adds that *Kalivṛkṣa* is the abode of *bhūtas* (ghosts), and it is called *Vayaḍā* in Gauḍa.

Regarding cloths to be offered in $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, it is ordained that a piece of cloth, less than 36 angulas in $\bar{a}y\bar{a}ma$ (length?), should not be given by one who can afford. As regards ornaments, one should not offer such as are smaller in size than those which can be used by an eight-year-old girl. In the matter of offering various articles before deities, one is warned against vitta-sathya (deceitful economy). The idea is that one should give things in accordance with one's means, and should avoid niggardliness.

The worship of a pair of the images of certain deities has been forbidden. Such deities are Śakti, Sūrya, Ganeśa. Prohibited is the simultaneous worship of two Śalagrāmas, two Śivalingas.

It should be noted that $Tantric p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ must be done by one's ownself or through the medium of the *guru*. If a person is himself unable and his *guru* also is not available, he should appoint, for the purpose, a



woman having a son. Grave sin is said to be incurred by getting the $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ performed by *Purohita* or any other person.

Gurupatni (wife of the guru) can be engaged in such worship. But if she does so, then there will be no homa nor balidana.

If the worship of a deity is hindered for a period of six months, then one should bathe the deity with eight pitcherfuls of water and then worship it. If the $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is suspended for over six months, then the image has to be subjected to $samsk\bar{a}ra$ (purificatory rites for revival) before resuming worship.

Images of the following descriptions should not be worshipped: Broken, cracked, deformed, touched by a leper, fallen on a defiled spot.

The first three are to be thrown into water, while the rest should be worshipped after saṃskāra. In a Mahāpīṭha and in an Anādilinga nothing affects the image.

Kumārī-pūjā (worship of virgin girls) figures prominently in Bengal Tantra. The Tantrasāra cites authorities to show that the $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ of virgin girls leads to the acquisition of many merits, destruction of many sins and the acquisition of peace and prosperity. The worship of a kumārī is to be followed by a feast to her. After that, she should be given a fee $(daksin\bar{a})$ consisting of silver, gold or pearls. To arrange for the marriage of such a girl with a suitable person is said to lead to bhukti (enjoyment) and mukti (salvation). Homa, etc., are said to produce complete effect if Kumārī-pūjā is done. Virgin girls are stated to have different designations in the successive years following their birth. These are as follows:

One year Sandhya Two years Sarasvati Three years Tridhamurti Four years Kalika Five years Subhagā Six years Umā Seven years Malinī Eight years Kubiikā

Nine years
Ten years
Aparājitā
Eleven years
Rudrāņī
Twelve years
Bhairavī

Thirteen years Mahālakṣmī

Fourteen years

Fifteen years

Sixteen years

Ambika

The above list is in accordance with the Rudrayāmala,

It is provided that a girl should be worshipped so long as the menstrual flow does not begin in her. $Kum\bar{a}r\bar{t}$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is prescribed from the first day to the full moon in the bright half of the month. It is a must on the Mahānavamī day of $Durg\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$.

The Prāṇatoṣiṇī points out that the above designations are given also in the Bṛhannīla-tantra with the difference that a fourteen-year old girl is called Nāyikā and a sixteen-year old girl is called Carcikā. According to the Kubjikā-tantra, quoted in the Prāṇatoṣiṇī, girls from the age of five up to twelve are kumārīs in the real sense of the term. Those, in the age-group of six to nine, are conducive to the fulfilment of the wishes of the sādhaka. Girls of the age ranging from eight to thirteen are Kulajās. From the tenth year up to the sixteenth they are Yuvatīs, and are to be looked upon as goddesses. According to the Viśvasāra, cited in the Prāṇatoṣiṇī, an eight-year old girl, a nine-year old one and a ten-year old girl are designated respectively as Gaurī, Rohiṇī, Kanyakā. After that age-limit girls are Rajasvalā, i.e. those in whom menstrual flow appears. Girls of the age-group of twelve to twenty are called sukumārā.

It is noteworthy that, in the selection of *Kumāris*, no castedistinction is to be observed. On authority, the *Prāṇatoṣiṇī* names the daughters of the following persons, who can be worshipped as *Kumārīs*:

nați (dancing woman), hīna (low=caste person), Kāpālika, rajaka (washerman), nāpita (barber) gopāla (cowherd), Brāhmaṇa, Śūdra, Vaidya,³³ Vaṇik (merchant), Caṇḍala, one's friend.

It may be observed that, in connexion with Kumārī-pūjā on the occasion of purascaraņa, as described in the Purascaraņa-ratnākara, the Mahākāla-saṃhitā prescribes a kumārī of anīcajāti (not of a low birth).

Ralldang

Animal sacrifice, according to Bengal Tantra, has been dealt with in connection with *Pañcatattva* and *Durgā-pūjā*.

For māmsa, as a tattva, the meat of the following has been prescribed in the Tantrasāra as the best: such meat is called mahāmāmsa:



Cow, human being, sheep, horse, buffalo, bear, goat, deer. As an alternative to the above, the same work mentions the following:

Cow, sheep, horse, buffalo, $godh\bar{a}$ (= $gos\bar{a}p$ in Bengal), goat, camel, deer.

It should be observed that cow is the common factor in both. Thus, it is clear that, at some time or other, the cow was slaughtered before the deity and its flesh was offered. It may be presumed that, even at the time of Kṛṣṇānanda, it was not prohibited for Tāntrikas; because there is no prohibition of it in the Tantrasāra. It is interesting to note that the Prāṇatoṣiṇī does not include cow's meat in the list of animals which should be sacrificed before the deity. Probably, in course of time, due to Brahmanical influence, cow-slaughter was looked down upon by the society.³⁵

As regards human flesh, we have noticed, under *Pañcatattva*, that the Prāṇatoṣiṇī forbids it for Brahmaṇas and also in general. This practice might have crept into Tantra from the aborigines among whom Tāntric practices are supposed by some to have originated. In course of time, it was tabooed in the society due to the advancement of culture and Brahmanical influence.³⁶

The Prāṇatoṣiṇi quotes the Samayācāra-tantra which divides bali into two kinds—Sāttvika and Rājasa. The former is devoid of flesh, blood, etc. (māṃsa-raktādi-varjita), the latter consists of these things. The Yogini-tantra, quoted in the above work, states the different balis most suitable for the different castes. These are as follows:

Brahmaṇas—milk, Śāli rice or pāyasa (a preparation of rice with milk and sugar made into a gruel), caru³⁷ saturated with ghee, fruits, flowers, krsara³⁸ mixed with honey, khanda,³⁹ modaka.⁴⁰

Kşatriyas—animals.

Vaiśyas---paddy.

Śūdras—honey.

The text concludes this topic by saying that, as an alternative, all castes may offer animals (sarveṣām paśavo'thavā).

The Yogini-tantra appears to allow the offer of even rats, $kar\bar{a}la$ (musk-deer?) and small cats.

The above authority prohibits the following birds:

kākola, kalavinka, rājahaṃsa, sārika, śuka, gṛḍhra, mayūra, citraka, veņu-pṛṣtha, kṛṣṇa-pārāvata, bṛḥat-kapota, khañjarīṭa, baka, balākā.

An interesting practice is Satru-bali. One is required to make an idol with condensed milk, and perform prana-patistha (infusion of life



by mantras) in it in the name of the enemy, and finally cut it with one's own hand with an angry look. This is supposed to ensure the destruction of the enemy.

The offer of eatables, consisting mainly of meat, to jackals at the root of a tree, in a field or a cemetery, in the evening, is stated to be conducive to great merit. Goddess Umā is said to come in the guise of jackals; in fact, a jackal is designated as Śivā and the above articles are called Śivā-bali.

Antaryaga

Great importance is attached to antaryaga in Bengal Tantra. It means mental worship in which the five Tattvas are conceived as abstract and not tangible things. Quoting the Kulārnava, Kṛṣṇānanda says, 'Surā is Śakti, Śiva māmsa, their enjoyer is Bhairava Himself'. Their unity being effected, a peculiar bliss ensues and is called moksa. This is done in the following process. Kundalinī Śakti repeatedly goes from mūlādhāra to brahma-randhra. In antaryāga, a person drinks the ambrosia flowing from the sky-lotus (vyoma-pankaja); this is madhupāna (drinking of honey). The drink of other kinds of liquor is madya-pāna (drinking wine). One, having slain the beast in the shape of merit and sin (punyapunya-paśu) with the weapon of knowledge, merges his mind in the Supreme Being, and thus becomes palāšī (eater of pala41 or meat). One, having restrained the senses, puts them in the soul (ātmani), and thus becomes māmsāśi (eater of meat); others, who take meat in the gross sense, are killers of animals. Yonimudra is the mudrā to such a person; other mudrās are food. Union with the Supreme Soul, Parāśakti, is maithuna; those who enjoy the bliss of this union are liberated. Others, who enjoy physical copulation, are addicted to women.

In connexion with antaryāga, it is said that one who, regardless of the deity residing within oneself, seeks it outside, is like a fool who, ignoring the Kaustubha jewel in his hand, roams about for glass.

While describing antaryāga, the Prāṇatoṣiṇī quotes the following verses from the Mundamālā-tantra:

ādhāre kuṇḍalīṃ devīṃ cintayed bhujagākṛtim /
pūrakeṇa mahesāni tayā cakrāṇi saḥ tataḥ /
sahasrānanda-sandoha—mandiraṃ prāpayet sudhīḥ /
yojayitvā pūrakeṇa sādhakaḥ paramātmani /
śivaśakti-samāyogāt sukhī bhuyān-nirantaram /



vikāsitam bhaved deham sakalam tat prabhāvatah / anāhatād bahih padmam sodasāram vicintavet / tanmadhye cintayen mantri sudhā-sāgaram uttamam / \$ata-yojana-vistirnam valayākāram ujjvalam / tanmadhye paramesani mani-dvipam manoharam / pārijātādi-racitair-udyānaih parisobhitam / kalpavrksam mahādevi madhyasthāne vicintayet / suvarna-racitam nānā-ratna-sancaya-ranjitam / prabāla-mekhalā-yuktam ghantā-cāmara-rājitam / tanmadhye paramesani cintayen-mani-vedikam / tasyopari mahādevi mani-pitham manoharam / Svakalpa-yantramuktam tad yonirūpam vicintayet / bhrūmadhye paramesāni yaccāndram pātramuttamam / tatrastham amrtam devi tatra yonau viniksipet / tenaiva vidyudākāram yonimadhye vicintayet / ākāsājjāyate vāyur-vayorutpadyate ravih / raverutpadyate niram nirād utpadyate mahi / anenaiva vidhānena pahcabhūtātmakam bhavet / sarvendriya-samāyuktam sarvāyudha-samanvitam / sarvālamkara-racitam devideham vicīntayet /

Regarding mānasa-pūjā, the Mahānirvāņa says (Chap. V) as follows:

hrt-padmam āsanam dadyāt sahasrāra-cyutāmytaih / pādyam caranayor-dadyān-manasārghyam nivedayet / tenāmrtenā-camanam snāniyam api kalpayet / ākāśa-tattvam vasanam gandham tu gandha-tattvakam / cittam prakalpayet puspam dhüpam pranan prakalpayet / tejastattvam ca dipärthe naivedyam ça sudhāmbudhim / anahata-dhvanim ghantam vayutattvam ca camaram / nrtyam indriya-karmāni cāńcalyam manasastathā / puspam nanavidham dadyad atmano bhava-siddhaye / amāyām anahamkāram arāgam amadam tathā / amoham adambham ca advesaksobhake tathā / amātsaryam alobham ca dasapuspam prakirtitam / ahimsām paramam puspam puspam indriya-nigraham / dayā-kṣamā-jñāna-puspam pañcapuspam tatah param / iti pañcadaśaih puspair-bhāvapuspaih prapūjayet / sudhāmbudhim māmsa-sailam bharjitam mina-parvatam / mudrā-rāsim subhaktam ca ghrtāktam pāyasam tathā /



kulāmṛtaṃ ca tat puṣpaṃ plṭha-kṣālana-vāri ca /
kāmakrodhau tu vikṛtau baliṃ datvā japaṃ caret/
mālā varṇamayl proktā kuṇḍall sūtrayantritā/
sabinduṃ varṇam uccārya mūlamantraṃ samuccaret/
akārādi kṣakārāntam anuloma-vilomataḥ/
punar-lakāram ārabhya śrikaṇṭhānta-manuṃ japet/
viloma iti vikhyātaḥ kṣakāro merur-ucyate/
aṣṭa-vargāntimair-varṇaiḥ saha mūlam ahāṣṭakam/
evam aṣṭottaraśatam japtvā tena samarpayet/
sarvāntarātmani laye svāhā jyotiḥ-svarūpiṇī/
gṛhāṇāntarjapaṃ mātar-ādyā kāli namo'stu te/
samarpya japam etena sāṣṭāṅgaṃ praṇamed dhiyā/

The *Prāṇatoṣiṇī* adds that, after performing *antaryajana*, one should commence *bahih-pūjā*.

There is provision for antar-homa which is also called jñāna-homa. Such homa is performed in the vessel in the shape of ādhāra (mūlādhāra?) with cidagni (fire in the form of consciousness).

Śaiva-vivaha

It has been described in the survey of the contents of the Mahānirvāṇa-tantra.

Recognised Subjects of Study

The Prāṇatoṣiṇi devotes considerable space to the determination of the subjects of study. On authority, Vidyās are said to be eighteen which are as follows: 4 Vedas, 4 Upavedas, 6 Vedāṅgas, Purāṇa, Nyāya, Mīmāṃsa, Dharmaśāstra. Among the Upavedas are included Āyurveda, Gāndharva, Daṇḍanīti, Dhanurveda; these are stated to belong to the following Vedas respectively: RK, Sāman, Atharvan, Yajus. Darśanas are Bauddha, Śaiva, Brāhma, Saura, Vaiṣṇava, Śākta. It is also said that, at present (at the time of the author), the following are recognised as Darśanas: Vedānta, Sāṃkhya, Mīmāṃsā, Viśeṣa (i.e. Vaiśeṣika), Tarkaśāstra. Yoga is conspicuous by its absence. Cārvākadarśana has been characterised as ati-garhita (extremely reprehensible). Bauddhaśāstra has been stated to have been propounded by Viṣṇu, in the form of the Buddha, for the destruction of the demons.

Regarding Anviksiki, the author cites authority which condemns it and regards its study as extremely sinful. Authority has been quoted



also in support of the study of it. By examining several texts, condemning and commending it, the author comes to the conclusion that $\overline{Anviksiki}$ has a twofold connotation— $Tarka-vidy\overline{a}$ and $\overline{Atma-vidy\overline{a}}$. $\overline{Atma-vidy\overline{a}}$ is, of course, commended. The author seeks to establish that $Tarka-vidy\overline{a}$ as such is not condemned. $\overline{Anviksiki}$, which is allowed, does not refer to $Tarka-vidy\overline{a}$, or $Ny\overline{aya-sastra}$ propounded by Gautama, but that taught by Dattatreya. By examining certain texts, the author comes to the conclusion that $Tarka-vidy\overline{a}$ as such is not forbidden. If it is studied without any conflict with the import of \overline{amnaya} (accepted tradition or conventional texts), then it is conducive to welfare. Otherwise, the mere learning of Gautama's Sastra, without any relation to traditional knowledge, will make a person suspicious in all the rites and rituals.

On the authority of the *Meru-tantra*⁴² and the *Niruttara-tantra*,⁴³ Agama (=Tantra) is said to be a Vedānga and the fifth Veda respectively.

Sthāpatya (architecture) has been recognised on the authority of Śaṃkarācārya. It means Viśvakarma-śāstra which includes Śāstras teaching the construction of house, vāstu, kunda, etc.

The author of the $Pr\bar{a}natosini$ concludes that various arts (silpa) like $K\bar{a}ma-s\bar{a}stra$, $N\bar{a}tya-s\bar{a}stra$, etc., also come within the purview of the approved subjects of study, because these are said to be recognised by Tantra. From the discusson in the $Pr\bar{a}natosini$ it appears that a distinction is made between $Vidy\bar{a}$ and $S\bar{a}stra$. While $Vidy\bar{a}s$ are the eighteen, enumerated above, all others are included in $S\bar{a}stra$.

Deha-tattva

We have said elsewhere that Tantra looks upon the body as the primary requisite of all kinds of sādhana. So, attempts have been made to analyse the various elements constituting the body, the bones, flesh, sinews, veins, arteries, various organs, internal and external. Thus, we find anatomy and physiology in Tantra. The entire process of a man's life, since gestation till death, has been analysed. Means have been prescribed to keep the body fit in every way. Torture of the body by penance, as is usually prescribed in the Brahmanical Dharmaśāstra, is not ordinarily countenanced by Tantra.

In the spirit of Tantra in general, the Bengali authors look upon the body as a microcosm. Whatever exists in *brahmānḍa* (universe) is found in the *pinḍa* (body). All the holy places, even gods, are said to reside in the body.

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When sādhana is properly done, and the mysteries are mastered, one gets an adamantine body (vajra-deha) which is not decayed by disease, heat, cold, hunger and thirst. The possessor of such a body can achieve many things at will.

Śava-Sadhana

Śava-sādhana (worship on a corpse) plays an important role in the Tantric system of worship in Bengal. On the authority of the Bhāvacūḍāmaṇi, Kṛṣṇānanda prescribes the following places as suitable for this rite.

Empty house, river-bank, mountain, lonely spot, root of a bel tree, cemetery, place near a cemetery, battlefield.

The suitable time is the darkness of the night in the eighth and fourteenth lunar mansions of both the bright and dark fortnights. Tuesday is mentioned as propitious for the purpose.

It appears that dead bodies of both human beings and beasts can be used for the purpose. Among human beings, Brāhmaṇas and of the beasts cows are prohibited. Corpses are described as *mahā-śavas*, and are stated to be most suitable in such *sādhana*.⁴⁶ Of the human beings, the following are prescribed:

A Candala, dead as a result of being struck with sticks, swords, spears, etc., drowning, struck by thunder, snake-bite, injury; a handsome bright young hero, killed in battle while facing the opposite party, but not escaping.⁴⁷

Forbidden among human beings are woman, thsoe who committed suicide, hen-pecked persons (strivaśya), the apostate (patita), the untouchable (aspṛśya⁴⁵), beardless men (tubara), those whose genital organs are not clearly visible,⁴9 lepers, the old, those who died in a famine, stale corpses.

Kṛṣṇānanda adds that, according to other Tantras, in the want of the corpses prescribed above, one should perform the rite on an effigy made of darbha grass (darbha-śava) or barley, rice, etc. (yava-piṣṭakādinā). In the absence of suitable carcasses, the body of any animal (jantumātr) or a tiny body (ksudra-śava) may be selected.

If, in such sādhana, nothing is obtained by the sādhaka till midnight, then he should scatter sesamum, walk seven steps and perform japa. He should continue japa with great concentration so long as the corpse or carcass does not promise to give the desired object or grant a boon. After the purpose of the sādhaka is served, he should release the



hairs and feet of the dead body, which were tied before commencement of sadhana. Then, having washed and bathed it, he should throw it into water or bury it and cast off the articles of worship into water. Last of all, he should bathe and go home. Next day, he should make offerings of these things wanted by those whom he worshipped overnight. The other rites, connected with this sadhana, are the drinking of pañcagavya, feeding of twenty-five Brähmanas. God is supposed to reside in the body of such a sadhaka for fifteen days since the commencement of sādhana. During this period, he is asked not to enjoy his wife, hear songs and witness dance.

Yoginī-sādhana

The worship of Yoginis occupies a considerable space in Bengal Tantra. According to the Tantrasara, Surasundari is the foremost of Yoginis by worshipping whom Kubera is said to have been the lord of wealth. Her appearance is as follows: face like the full moon, complexion white, wearing variegated dress, breasts plump and heaving, she is to be fancied as granting freedom from fear. Meditated upon for a month and duly worshipped on the concluding day of the month, she is stated to appear before the devotee at midnight. She appears only if she knows him to be of firm resolve.

The devotee may worksip her as a mother, sister or wife. Worshipped as mother, she bestows riches and various other articles, even kingdom, on him, and comes daily and protects him like his mother; looked upon as sister, she gives various things including divine damsels, and takes care of him like a brother. Regarded as wife, she enables him to know the past, present and future, and by her grace he becomes superior even to kings. Moreover, he can traverse everywhere in heaven, on earth and in the nether regions. In union with her, he will enjoy bliss and shall avoid association with other women.

Bhāvas

Tantric bhavas are attitudes and ways of life. A bhava indicates the habits and practices of a person. Three bhavas are stated in Bengal Tantra, These are Divva, Vira and Pasu.

The Prānatosinī lays down that, of the bhāvas, Paśu is the worst, Vira medium and Divya best. On the authority of the Vāmakeśvara-tantra, it is said that one has Paśu-bhāva from birth till the sixteenth year of age. Then a person has Vira-bhava up to his fifteenth year; for the rest of life he gets Divva-bhāva. The bhāvas arensaid to follow one UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

another as boyhood is succeeded by youth and the latter by old age. Divya-bhāva is stated to be threefold—caused by Veda, produced by āgama and generated by viveka (discriminatory knowledge). The first is said to be the worst, the second medium and the third best.

It is further stated that one has to assume Paśu-bhāva during the first ten daṇḍas of the day. In ten daṇḍas at midday, he should have Vira-bhāva. During ten daṇḍas from evening one should have Divya-bhāva. Again, it is ordained that from birth one should worship deities with Paśu-bhāva. Then if Vidyās are pleased, then a person should adopt Vira-bhāva. Through the grace of Vira-bhāva he will have Divya-bhāva.

Even a person with *Paśu-bhāva* is said to be capable of attaining *Siddhi* provided he always studies and ponders the Veda, abjures speaking ill of others, violence, idleness, greed, delusion and the six internal enemies.

The Mahānirvāṇa (iv. 19) states that, in the Kali Age, Paśu-bhāva is absent and Divya-bhāva scarce. In this age, Vīra-sādhana alone is conducive to direct effect.⁵¹ This work, however, advocates Kulācāra as superior to all else.

None of the Tantra writers of Bengal appears to have clearly defined the above *bhāvas*. We can, however, gather their characteristics from other sources.

In Paśu-bhāva one takes to apparently sensuous and frightful rites. The Vira way is prescribed only for heroic persons who are not deterred in the performance of such rites as sitting on a corpse in a cemetery in a dark night and performing sādhana with absolute concentration. A Vira has unflinching zeal in all situations in his search for the eternal soul. In him there is a complete absence of the idea of dualism. Vira and Divya have very much in common with the only difference that while the former is haughty, the latter is śānta (tranquil), vinīta (modest), madhura (charming), kalā-lāvanya-saṃyuta (endowed with kalā and grace) and devavat (God-like). Vīras are threefold, the distinction between the different types being based on the degree of devotional fervour.

It should be noted that some Tantras condemn $V\bar{\imath}ra$ -bhāva for Brāhmaṇas. According to one Tantra, ⁵⁴ Paśu-bhāva alone should be adopted by them.



Cakra-pūjā

Cakra occupies a very important position in Bengal Tantra. The term literally means 'circle'. In Tantra it came to mean also certain figures and depressions within the human body, conceived for mystical purposes. The term, as used in Bengal Tantra, has threefold connotation.

A. Cakras relating to the examination of mantras for initiation. These are

- (i) A KA DA MA-Tantrasāra, Śrītattva-cintāmaņi
- (ii) A KA THA HA Do (iii) Rnadhana Do (iv) Kulākula Do (v) Kūrma Do
- (vi) Nakṣaṭra Do (vii) Rāṣt Do
- (viii) Varga--Śrītattva-cintāmaņi
- B. Cakras relating to Yoga.

These are supposed to be within the human body.55

These are as follows, one upon the other ---

- (i) Mūlādhara: Space measuring two fingers between the anus and the genital organ. In it Kuṇḍalini resides.
- (ii) Svādhişṭhāna: A six-petalled lotus in the Suṣumṇā at the root of the genital organ.
- (iii) Manipura: Navel-lotus.
- (iv) Anāhata: A twelve-petalled lotus in the Suṣumṇā inside the heart.
- (v) Visuddha: A sixteen-petalled lotus in the throat.
- (vi) $\overline{Aj\bar{n}\bar{a}khya}$: The fontanelle or union of the coronal and sagittal sutures:
- (vii) Sahasrāra: A sort of cavity said to exist in the top of the head and to resemble a thousand-petalled lotus reversed. Supposed to be the seat of the soul.

Different faculties and deities are supposed to reside in the above Cakras. Satcakra-bheda or Cakrabheda⁵⁶ denotes the highest stage of Tantric sādhana.

C. Assembly of Tantric Sadhakas.



Bhairavi-cakra and Tattva-cakra

These Cakras mean assemblies of Tantrikas, in which certain rites are performed. The Bhairavi-cakra, as described in the Mahanirvaṇa-tantra (vii. 154-176), is briefly as follows.

On a beautiful spot (ramyabhūmi), the Kulācārya will spread out a seat, purify it with the mantra Kāmādya astrabija (i.e. klim phat,- and sit on it. With vermilion, red sandal-paste or with water a triangular mandala, and outside it a rectangular mandala, should be drawn. The Sādhaka will then bring a variegated pitcher which will be filled in succession with curd and atapa rice, fruits and leaves and perfumed water. Then it will be marked with vermilion, and reciting pranava it will be placed on that mandala (the outer one?). In front of it should be placed a lamp and burning incense. Having placed sandal-paste and flowers. and meditated upon the desired deity, one should perform a brief pūjā. In this rite, nine vessels for guru, etc., are not necessary. The worshipper will place the intended tattva before him, sprinikle water over it with the astra (i.e. mantra phat) and look at it with winkless eyes. Then having put flowers and sandal-paste on the drinking vessel, he will meditate upon goddess Ananda-bhairavi and Ananda-bhairava. After meditation, he will reflect upon the unity of the above two deities in the vessel. Then uttering the nama mantra, beginning with pranava and ending in namas, and worshipping with sandal-paste and flowers he should purify the wine. The Kula worshipper will purify wine by reciting for hundred and eight times the threefold bija pāśa, etc., ending with svāhā (i.e. the mantra ām hrim krom svāhā). This will be followed by the purification, with the above mantra recited one hundred times, of meat, etc. Then having thought that all the articles collected are pervaded by Brahman, one should shut the eyes, offer the articles to Kall and eat and drink the same.

While in a Cakra, one must abjure fickleness, gossip, garrulity, spitting, etc.

Those who are wicked, cruel, sinful, atheistic, speak ill of a Kula or follow paśvācāra must be expelled from a Cakra.

A Sādhaka, possessed of true knowledge, will acquire the same merit, by reciting the mantra only once in a Cakra, as is obtained by a hundred purascaranas on Śavāsana, Mundāsana or Citāsana.

By performing the Cakra for six months, one can be a king for one year, one can overcome death and by its daily performance one gets liberation. This Cakra is stated to be the sole means to the ends of



bhukti and mukti.

Tattva-cakra, also called Divya-cakra or Brahma-cakra, is regarded as the best among Cakras (cakra-rāja). (Mahānirvāṇa-tantra, vii. 203 ff). Only the Sādhaka, possessed of the knowledge of Brahman, is entitled to it. In this rite, there is no provision for the placing of a pitcher and the prolixity of $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$.

The leader of the Cakra (Cakreśvara) will be a person with his mind fixed on Brahman. He will start the Cakra along with Sādhakas versed in the knowledge of Brahman. He will sit on a pure and pleasant spot with them, have the tattvas brought there and place the same in front. The leader will recite the mantra, beginning with $t\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ (i.e. Om) and ending in $pr\bar{a}nab\bar{i}ja$ (i.e. hamsa), for a hundred times, over each of the tattvas, and then utter the following mantra thrice or seven times:

brahmārpaņam brahmahavir-brahmāgnau brahmaņā hutam / brahmaiva tena gantavyam brahma-karma-samādhinā //

Bhagavadgītā (iv. 24)

[(For him) the act of offering is God, the oblation is God, by God is it offered into the fire of God. God is that which is to be attained by him who realises God in his works. Radhakrishnan.] Having thus sanctified the *tattvas*, and consecrated the same to Brahman, he should eat and drink the same with other Sādhakas.

It is interesting to note that practices similar, in some respects to Cakra-pūjā, prevailed also in some countries of Europe. Some think that this practice was borrowed from the Dravidians of India.⁵⁷

In such a rite in the European countries, *Bacchus* and his consort used to be worshipped by men and women who assembled at a place. A few people worshipped them with austerity and restraint. But, in most cases, at dead of night, men and women used to indulge in unrestrained drinking and promiscuous sexual intercourse. History records such a practice resorted to by the mother of Alexander the Great (4th cent. B.C.).

Yoga

Yoga plays a prominent part in Tantra. Quoting authorities, Kṛṣṇānanda defines and emphasises the importance of yoga in the following manner. Yoga is stated to be salvation in crossing rebirths (saṃsārottaraṇe muktir-yoga-śabdena kathyate). Yoga is also described as the identification of the individual with ātman (aikyaṃ vātmanorā-



hur-yogam). For the realisation of Brahman the practice of both mantra and jnāna is necessary: success in Yoga, is not possible without mantra (na mantrena vinā yogah).

The following are the main types of yoga dealt with in Bengal Tantra. We shall name the broad types of yoga, state the names of the works dealing with them and set forth briefly the principal characteristics of them.

- A. Jñāna-yoga: *Prāṇatoṣiṇi*. It consists in the constant meditation on the Brahman as the one single reality and on the fact that the universe is His manifestation.
- B. Mantra-yoga: *Prāṇatoṣiṇī*. Also *Tantrasāra*. It is the designation of the repeated recitation, in the proper manner, of *mantras* followed by *Aṅganyāsa*, etc.
- C. Rājayoga: Prāņatoṣiņī. It consists in the meditation on the six Cakras, Mūlādhāra, etc., as connected with Idā, Pingalā, Suṣumṇā.
- D. Laya-yoga: *Prāṇatoṣiṇi*. Meditation on the luminous Brahman in the thousand-petalled lotus in the head, after fixing the sight on the tip of the nose or between the eye-brows.
- E. Hatha-yoga: *Prāṇatoṣiṇī*. Performance of the six acts, *Dhauti*, etc., after practising *Pūraka*, *Kumbhaka*, *Recaka* in the regular and reverse order in accordance with the rules of *Prāṇāyāma*.

Position of Women and Sudras

Bengal Tantra accords an exalted place to women. A woman has equality of right with a man in Tantric dikṣa and other Tantric rites. Most of the disabilities, to which she is subjected, in the performance of Vedic rites and the recitation of Vedic mantras, have been done away with in Tantra.

To a man his wife is indispensable. A man without wife is like a bird with one wing, a chariot with one wheel. He is debarred from all rites; he cannot be a grhastha. So, one must get a wife even at the cost of everything (sarvasvenāpi kartavyo dārasamgrahah).

Ordinarily the father cannot initiate his son to Tantric dikṣā. But, this restriction does not apply to the mother. In fact, the mother is the best guru. A mantra, taught by a woman, does not require purification like ordinary mantras.

The woman is not only necessary but indispensable for a man in the performance of Tantric Sadhana. Of the five tattvas, essential for this purpose, the fifth one, viz. maithuna, in the gross sense of the term,



is not possible without her. Her position is so high in this matter that she has the honoured designation of Śakti, Prakṛti, Bhairavī, etc.

From the Tantrasāra we learn that, in the rite Puraścaraṇa for Viras, another man's wife can be worshipped. On the authority of the Gupta-sādhana-tantra, the Prāṇatoṣiṇī holds that, in Kula-sādhana, one's own wife or the wife of another person is necessary. A woman of any one of the following classes can be the Śakti for this purpose: Brāhmaṇa, Kṣatriya, Vaiśya, Śūdra, prostitute, barber, washerman and dancing woman. It is further provided that a Kula woman of any caste can be the Śakti provided she has special accomplishment (viśeṣa-vaidagdhya). In the absence of the women of above classes, one is asked to worship any one of the following, each preceding in the list being considered to be better than the succeeding one: daughter, younger sister, elder sister, maternal aunt, mother, step-mother. In the absence of even these women, any woman can be worshipped.

In Smrti, Vedic mantras are not allowed to be recited by women. But, to all Tantric mantras women are equally entitled with men.

Maiden girls, irrespective of caste, are held in high esteem; so much so that their worship $(kum\bar{a}ri \cdot p\bar{u}j\bar{a})$ on certain festive occasions is regarded as a bounden duty. Great merit is stated to be acquired by a person who arranges, at his cost, for the marriage of a maiden girl.

Among the disabilities of women, according to Tantra, some are as follows: Savitrī, praņava, (i.e. oṃkāra), Lakṣmī-bija (i.e. Śrī)—these are tabooed for women. Women are debarred from worshipping, even touching, śālagrāma stones.

In certain matters, women are regarded as inferior to men. For example, the dead body of a woman is condemned for $\hat{S}ava-s\bar{a}dhana$. Again, the corpse of a henpecked ($str\bar{i}-vasya$) man is excluded for this purpose.

The Mahānirvāṇa (Chap. xi) vehemently denounces the enjoyment of others' wives and sexual intercourse of women with others' husbands. A man shall maintain his wife even if she is raped by another man; in such a case, she will be deprived of conjugal rights over her husband. A man shall be sentenced to death if he forcibly enjoys even a Caṇḍāla woman. If a man finds that his wife has relation with a paramour, then he will desert her, but will be liable to her maintenance provided she abides by his directions.

A girl, married by an eunuch, should be married to a normal person even if a long time expires since the first marriage.



A girl, widowed before associating with her husband, should be married again.

A woman, giving birth to a mature child within six months of marriage or one soon after the death of her husband, will be subjected to social ostracism.

Destruction of the foetus and abetment of the same have been severely condemned.

A widow is required by the *Mahānirvāṇa* to live a life of austerity and self-restraint.

A woman, married according to Śaiva-vivāha, is not entitled to the property of her parents (Mahānirvāṇa, xii. 60).

The honoured position, accorded to women, is not surprising in a system which regards Śakti as the highest divinity. One may think that the predominance of the female sex perhaps points to the matriarchal society in which Tantra may have originated. From this point of view, it may not be quite unjustified to presume that Tantra owes its origin to non-Aryans among whom matriarchy was the commonest pattern. Even today, many aboriginal tribes regard the mother as the supreme personality, indeed the pivot round whom the family moves. A comparison of the society, reflected in the post-Vedic period, particularly the period of Dharma-śāstra, and that envisaged in Tantra reveals that the misogynic tendencies, noticeable in the former, are absent in the latter. Though Manu accords the mother an exalted position, even higher than that of the father,60 with respect to the son, yet he prohibits religious rites for women independently of their husbands.⁶¹ This attitude is clearly contrary to that of Tantra which allows all Tantric rites to women subject to limited restrictions, and speaks of initiation by mother as the best. It should, however, be noted that, despite a very honourable position given to women in Tantra, the husband is regarded as a woman's mahāguru or the most superior person.

For Tantric dikṣā Śūdras are equally eligible as members of the highter castes. No disability, attached to the Śūdras, attaches to a Śūdra who is pūrṇābhiṣikta. Such a Śūdra can even worship a Śālagrāma, recite praṇava and perform homa. Even a Brāhmaṇa can worship the Śālagrāma touched by such a Śūdra. A Śūdra of the above description is entitled to the study of Tantras. The attitude of the Bengali Tāntrikas is that unless a Śūdra becomes free from aṣṭapāśas or the eight frailties to which flesh is heir, he cannot enjoy the above privileges even if he is pūrnābhisikta.



A Śudra kumāri may be worshipped even by a Brāhmaṇa who can take her prasāda.

A Śūdra Avadhūta is worthy of salutation by even a Brāhmaṇa.

Tantra has done away with many of the disabilities to which Sūdras are subjected in Smṛti. A Sūdra also is entitled to Tāntric dīkṣā and Śiva-pūjā. To Kulācāra a Śūdra has the same right as that of the upper classes. Among the disabilities of Śūdras, according to Tantra, mention may be made of the fact that they are not allowed to worship or even touch a Śālagrāma stone. They can, however, worship it through a Brāhmaṇa. A Śūdra is debarred from reciting the following: Sāvitrī (i.e. Vedic Gāyatrī), praṇava (i.e. Oṃkāra). Lakṣmī-bija (i.e. Śrī). The guru is forbidden to give the following to a Śūdra: ātma-mantra, guru-mantra, ajapā-mantra, mantra containing svāhā. A Śūdra is allowed to adopt the mantras of Gopāla, Maheśvara, Durgā, Sūrya and Gaṇeśa and not of any other deity.

Curbs on Self-indulgence

Tantra advocates the attainment of the goal through enjoyment (bhoga) and not by rigorous asceticism. One should not suppose that Tantra encourages levity, lasciviousness or debauchery. We shall point out a few curbs on self-indulgence ordained in Bengal Tantra.

In connexion with pañcatattva, we have noticed that wine is condemned in early Tantra for Brāhmaṇas. For them anukalpa (substitute) is prescribed. Kṣatriyas and Vaiśyas are allowed to drink only special kinds of wine. Drinking of wine appears to have been compulsory only for Saṃnyāsins. The Mahānirvāṇa clearly declares that householders (grhastha) should use madhuraya (i.e. milk, sugar and honey) instead of wine. Excessive drinking has been strongly prohibited. According to the Mahānirvāṇa, a Kula woman should not drink wine, the smell of it is sufficient for her. It appears that wine, which is not consecrated (asaṃskṛta) is prohibited. Even when a Brāhmaṇa is allowed to drink wine, he should not do so before undergoing the rite of abhiṣeka.

Indiscriminate eating of meat is also forbidden. Of the different beasts, birds and aquatic creatures, only a few are specified. The same remark is applicable to fish.

As regards women, to be associated with or enjoyed by a Sādhaka, it should be stated that, while a wide range of choice is allowed, it is ordained that only an initiated woman serves the purpose. Again, one Sādhaka is allowed to resort to one woman only. In connexion with





Śaiva-vivāha, the Mahānirvāṇa (i. 279) ordains that a man, desiring issue, should meet his wife, but leave her with the expiry of the Cakraperiod. The Mahānirvāṇa strongly condemns the enjoyment of others' wives and sexual union of women with others' husband. A man committing rape on even a Cāṇḍāla woman deserves death-penalty.

Thus, we find a spirit of restrained enjoyment of the luxuries of life as a means to the end. Licence has never been granted for the free gratification of the senses.

Bengal Tantra vis-à-vis Dharmasastra

The Tantras of Bengal reveal notable departures from the conventional Brahmanical rites and practices laid down in Dharmaśāstra. We shall point out below the marked differences between the two in connexion with certain important matters only.

As regards Varnāśrama-dharma, we have already noted the salient features of Tantra, which are unconventional. We have noticed also that certain articles are not defiled by the touch of persons regarded as untouchable in Smrti.

Regarding forms of marriage, the *Mahānirvāṇa* appears to recognise (viii. 150) only *Brāhma-vivāha* among the eight forms stated in Smṛti. It, however, provides also for *Śaiva-vivāha*⁶² for the followers of Tantra; the woman, married according to this rite, is commended for all work in *Cakras* called *Bhairavī* and *Tattva*. For other purposes, the woman, married according to the *brāhma* rite, is said to be the most suitable. As stated in connexion with *Śaiva-vivāha* under the *Mahānirvāṇa-tantra*, both *anuloma* and *pratiloma* marriages condemned in Smṛti, are allowed.

Though, in Smrti, a son born out of pratiloma union is regarded with contempt and considered as untouchable, yet according to the Mahānirvāṇa, he belongs to the Sāmānya caste. According to Smrti, a man must marry a girl who is not his sagotrā, but in Śaiva-vivāha a sagotrā girl appears to be allowed. Though, in later Smrti, marriage with a girl of a different caste is not allowed Tantra appears to allow such a marriage. The Prāṇatoṣiṇi quotes an authority to say that for a Brāhmaṇa, a wife of the same caste is dharma-patnī while one of a different caste is kāma-patnī.

Tantric $dik s\bar{a}$ is not ordained by early Smrti. Again, the provision that women are very suitable as *gurus* and that mother is the best, runs counter to the general attitude of Dharmaśastra writers.



Purohita is considered to be the best person to serve as one's proxy in the Smarta rites. But, in a Tantric $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, Guru is to be engaged. Other persons are vehemently condemned.⁶³

In connexion with Kumārī-pūjā, it is provided that a kumārī of any caste, even the daughter of a washerman, barber, a Cāndāla, can be selected for the purpose. A Kula-strī65 of any caste, versed in Tantra and mantra, even if she be a prostitute, is to be saluted.

No caste-distinction is to be observed by one who is pūrṇābhiṣikta. The Śrītattva-cintāmaṇi prescribes (xxi. 1f) atonement for the sins arising out of brahma-hatyā (murder of Brāhmaṇas), etc. It states brahma-hatyādi, but does not enumerate all the sins. It, however, seems that the author recognises the sins stated in Smṛti-śāstra. In Smṛti, sins have been divided into several classes, called Mahāpātaka, Upapātaka, etc., in accordance with their gravity. The Mahāpātakas are five, viz. brahma-hatyā (murder of a Brāhmaṇa), surāpāna (drinking of wine), steya (theft⁶⁶), gurvaṅganāgama (adultery with the wife of one's preceptor) and saṃsarga (association with the perpetrators of the above four kinds of offence).

The Mahānirvāṇa (x. 205) states the five perpetrators of Mahāpātakas as—viraghātī (murder of one who is technically called Vīra⁶⁷), vṛthāpāyī (drinker of unconsecrated wine), Vīrāṇāṃ strīgama (one who commits adultery with the wife of a Vīra), steyī (thief), tatsaṃsargi (one who associates with the above four).

The Prāṇatoṣiṇī (Kāṇḍa iv, Pariccheda ii) appears to include the following under Mahāpātaka; vīravadha (murder of a Vīra), vṛthāpāna (drinking of unconsecrated wine), gurusnuṣāgamana (adultery with preceptor's daughter-in-law), vīrapatnīgamana (adultery with the wife of a Vīra), mantra-putrīgamana (adultery with the daughter of preceptor). The author mentions several other sins of a less grave nature, with their corresponding expiatory rites.

As regards expiation of the sin of the Mahāpātaka and other types, Pūrṇānanda ordains the worship of goddess Śivā in a Cakra⁶⁸ made with all raśmis (colour?), beautified with camphor-dust. The worship is to be done with red flowers, particularly Javā flowers, in accordance with Kulācāra. Such worship continuously for three months is stated to wash off crores of Mahāpātakas. Some other fragrant flowers are also recommended.

Expiation is prescribed for one for the sin incurred by deserting one's guru. The atonement, in such a case, is the repetition of a mantra



for one lac times and the performance of homa and tarpaṇa. The Śyāmārahasya ordains that this expiatory rite applies to the desertion of gurus of the divya and vira types. For a Kulaśisya, the desertion of the guru of the paśu type is but a duty. The Prāṇatoṣiṇī holds that it is not correct; because Kaulikas are exempted from prāyaścitta. On authority, the latter work makes it clear that the deserter of a paśuguru is not liable to prāyaścitta at all.

Both the Mahānirvāṇa and the Prāṇatoṣiṇi make a distinction between sin committed with and without knowledge; the punishment for the former is, of course, heavier than that for the latter. Both these works give a rather exhaustive penal code. The offences appear to be twofold, viz. those which harm others and those which cause harm to the perpetrator himself. For the offences of the former kind, the Mahānirvāṇa prescribes also punishment by the king besides the expiatory rites. For grave sins, committed without knowledge, the Prāṇatoṣiṇi ordains the repetition of the mūlamantra for thirteen thousand times. For washing off the sin resulting from offences, wilfully committed, one has to repeat the mantra for a lac of times. It is interesting to note that the Prāṇatoṣiṇi states bath in the Ganges at holy places like Nandā as capable of redeeming a man even from mahāpātakas.

Tantra makes a notable departure in recognising the Atharvaveda as a subject of study among the Vedic Samhitās. But Dharmaśāstra excludes it, and recognises the Vedic triad, viz. Rgveda, Yajurveda and Sāmaveda.

In Smrti, *Ucchista*, i.e. the remnant of ones' food, is condemned as impure. But, in certain Tantric rites, e.g. *Bhairava-cakra* and *Tattva-cakra*, ones' *ucchista* is allowed to be taken by another.

In Smrti, the enjoyment by a person of others' wives and of women of other castes is severely condemned. In Tantras, this practice appears to be allowed in certain Tantric rites. But, the *Mahānirvāṇa* (viii. 173) unequivocally prohibits it in the Kali Age for householders. The reason, underlying the prohibition, is that, in this Age, people are prone to lasciviousness and lack of self-control. For them substitutes are prescribed.⁷⁰

Regarding daily prayer, those who are entitled to *Vaidikī sandhyā* are asked in Tantra to perfom *Tāntrikī sandhyā* too. The latter is ordained for all initiates. The followers of conventional practices have to recite the Vedic Gāyatrī. But, one, initiated to Tāntrism, has to recite



also the Tantric Gayatri. While Smrti required the dvijas to say Vedic prayer daily, Tantra ordains that it may be given up by a Tantric initiate who takes recourse to the Saiva way.

No conventional Śāstric injunctions and prohibitions are applicable in the case of one who performs *Brahma-sādhana*.

It has been pointed out, in connexion with Varnāśrama-dharma that, contrary to Smṛti, Tantra recognises a caste, called Sāmānya, in addition to the four usual castes. Not only this. The Mahānirvāṇa allows (viii. 113) a man of this caste to take to the avocations of any caste other than a Brāhmaṇa, for livelihood.

Contrary to the rules of Smrti, if a person taking to brahma-mantra so desires, his dead body may be thrown into water or buried instead of being burnt (Mahānirvāna, x. 81).

According to Smṛti, the drinking of certain special kinds of wine, branded as surā, causes very grave sin, particularly on the part of Brāhmaṇas. But, the Prāṇatoṣiṇi not only allows surāpāna to a Tāntric Sādhaka, but regards surā as the best kind of wine (surā-madyaṃ sarvešām uttamam).

NOTES

- Regarding the significance of the terms and requisite qualities, see accounts of the contents of the Tantrasāra, Śritattva-cintāmaņi and Prāṇatoṣiṇi.
- 2. Vide Prāṇatoṣiṇi, Kāṇḍa II, Pariccheda ii.
- 3. Vide Prāṇatoṣiṇi, Kāṇḍa II, Pariccheda ii.
- 4. It may be pointed out that the Mahābhārata allows the desertion of the guru in the circumstances stated in the following stanza: guror-apy-avaliptasya kāryākāryam ajānataḥ/ utpatha-pratipannasya parityāgo vidhīyate// Śānti 57/7 cr. edn. [The abandonment is ordained of even the preceptor who is proud, ignorant of what should or should not be done (or) who has gone astray.]
- 5. For details, see under Śritattva-cintāmani, supra.
- 6. See Glossary.
- 7. cf. mantrār-canā-sana-nyāsa-dhyāno-pacārakādibhiḥ.
- 8. It is thus defined, gandhair maṇḍalakaṃ sviyair-vidadhyād dakṣiṇe kare/ vidhinā tva-rcayed devam itthaṃ syāc-chivahastakam//

- [With own perfumed substances (sandal-pasted) one should draw a figure on the right palm (then) worship God according to rule; thus becomes Śivahasta (the hand of Śiva).]
- 9. See in connexion with the contents of the Śrītattva-cīntāmani.
- 10. Kuṇḍa is a vessel in which homa is performed. Sthaṇḍila means sacrificial ground of a vessel used for the purpose.
- 11. For a lucid description of the devotee in this stage, see Guru-tantra Samsaya-nirāsa, pp. 20-25.
- 12. ādau kālī tatas-tārā sundarī tad anantaram/ kramadīkṣeti vikhyātā.../
- 13. cf. na dadyād brāhmaņo madyam mahādevyai kathamcana / vāmakāmo brāhmaņo hi madyamāmsam na bhakṣayet //
 [A Brāhmaṇa should, by no means, offer wine to Great Goddess. A Brāhmaṇa, desiring (to practise) Vāmācāra, should not take wine and meat.]
- 14. Makaranda means juice of flowers. But, the use of phala leads one to think that it may be mākanda which may mean a mango tree or a myrobalan tree.
- 15. Some *mantras* are prescribed for removing the curse with which wine is supposed to be tainted.
- 16. See Glossary.
- 17. It is interesting to note that Manu (V. 55) derives the word as mām sa bhakṣayitāmutra (the creature whose meat I eat will eat me in the next world.) This implies his general disapproval of meat-eating. Manu (V. 39), however ordains that the killing of an animal in a sacrifice amounts to non-slaughter.
- 18. cf. mahākalyā mahāpīṭhe yatra kutra maheśvari / balidānaṃ narasyāpi haṭhād bādhā bhaviṣyati / nivṛttaṃ hi tato devi balidānaṃ narādikam /
- 19. na dadyād brāhmaņo madyam mānuşam ca etc. Matsya-sūkta quoted in the Prānatoşiņī.
 - [A Brahmana should not offer wine and a human being.]
- 20. cf. ekām šaktim samānīya eka eva tu sādhakaḥ /
 pūjayed bahuyatnena pañcatattvena kaulikaḥ //
 [One Kaulika should worship, with much care, and five Tattvas
 (i.e. pañca makāras), having brought a single Śakti.]
- 21. Also see three kinds in the description of the contents of the *Śrītattva-cintāmaņi*.
- 22. Vide Glossary.



23. Asana on human skulis.

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- 24. Also see discussion on this topic in connexion with $P\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ in Chapter V.
- 25. For a clear description, see Purascarana-ratnākara, p. 152.
- 26. The space in between two lines in a finger.
- 27. cf. tadabhāve tu kasyāpi kartavyā-vayavasya vai. Does avayava mean a part of the skuli or of the body?
- 28. But, see 'even a Brāhmaņa' above.
- 29. Various Siddhis have been stated in the résumé of the contents of Bengal Tantra.
- 30. See in connexion with the contents of the Śrītattva-cintāmani,
- 31. Vide Tantrasāra, p. 224 (Vangavāsī Ed.)
- 32. The topic has been briefly dealt with in connexion with the account of the Śrītattva-cintāmani.
- 33. Name of a sub-caste in Bengal.
- 34. The word *bali* denotes offering in general, and not necessarily animal-sacrifice.
- 35. On beef-eating in ancient India, see P.V. Kane, *History of Dharmasāstra*, Vol. II, pp. 545, 772, 773, 776-7, etc., and the present author's *Dharmasūtras—a study*, etc., pp. 155 ff.
- 36. It is interesting to note that authoritative texts, quoted in Bengal digests on durgā-pūjā, include human beings among the things to be sacrificed before Durgā. This Pūjā appears to have been borrowed from or influenced by non-Aryans. Human sacrifice gradually became extinct.
- 37. Rice, barley or pulse boiled with butter and milk.
- 38. A dish consisting of sesamum and grain (mixture of rice and peas with a few spices).
- 39. Treacle or molasses partially dried, candied sugar.
- 40. A small round sweetmeat; any sweetmeat.
- 41. In this context, it appears to mean fish, because the next item is māṃsa.
- 42. cf. vedangaścagamah smrtah/
- 43. cf. agamah pañcamo vedahl
- 44. cf. śilpādi-kriyā tantrābhimatā/ Prāņatoṣiņī.
- 45. cf. pātālam bhūdharā lokā ādityādi-navagrahāh/ bhūdharādi-sapta-svargāśca nāgam ca sarvadehinām piņdamadhye sthitāh sarve.../

(The nether world, mountains, the regions, the nine planets, Sun etc; the seven heavens—all this exists in the bodies of all corporeal beings.)

Śāktānanda-tarangiņī quoted in the Prānatoṣiņī.

jantor-ākāram brahmāndam nānā-varṣma ca pārvatī/
brahmāndam vigraham proktam sthūla-sūkṣmā-dikam hi tat/
[O Pārvatī, the form of a being, the universe containing various bodies is called body, gross, subtle etc.]

Nirvāṇa-tantra quoted in Ibid.

Prakṛtiḥ puruṣo dehe brahmā viṣṇuḥ śivastathā

brahmānde ye ganāh santi te tisthanti kalevare! [Prakṛti and Puruṣa are in the body. Brahmā, Viṣṇu, Śiva and the Gaṇas, who are in the universe, exist in the body. (Gaṇas are a class of demigods who are regarded as Śiva's attendants and under the special superintendence of Gaṇeśa).]

Tattvasāra quoted in Ibid.

46. cf. mahāśavā-manuṣyāh syuḥ praśastā virasadhane —
(In Vira-sādhana the Mahāśavas of human beings are commended.)

Kālitantra quoted in the Tantrasāra.

- 47. cf. palāyana-viśūnyam ca sammukhe raņavartinam Bhāvacūdāmani quoted in the Tantrasāra.
- 48. It is difficult to be reconcile with the above rule prescribing the body of a Candala who is regarded as untouchable in Dharmasastra.
- 49. Eunuchs?
- 50. cf. bhāvo hi manaso dharmo manasaiva sadābhyaset/
- 51. It may be noted that the *Rudrayāmala* (Uttara Khaṇḍa, Paṭala I) ordains *Divya* and *Vira-bhāvas* as leading to the goal.
- 52. Puraścaryārņava, pp. 862-63.
- 53. Kalā may mean skill or the three constituents of sacrifice, viz. mantra, dravya, śraddhā.
- 54. Puraścaryarnava, p. 855.
- 55. Also see p. 6 supra.
- 56. See Glossary.
- 57. Svāmī Sāradānanda, Gītātattva O Bhārate Śaktipūjā, p. 151.

- 58. Of Veśyās, on the authority of the Gupta-sādhana-tantra, the Prāṇatoṣiṇī distinguishes seven kinds, viz. gupta-veśyā, mahā-veśyā, kula-veśyā, mahodayā, rāja-veśyā, deva-veśyā, brahma-veśyā. See in connexion with Kula-nirṇaya in the Prāṇatoṣiṇī.
- 59. Regarding Kula-śaktis, the Prāṇatoṣiṇī, on the authority of the Revatī-tantra (Paṭala iii), names 64 types of women including Caṇḍālī, Dhīvarī, Kocāṅganā, Bauddhā, Yavanī.
- 60. cf. sahasram tu pitṛn mātā gauravenā-tiricyate! (ii. 145). [The mother surpasses a thousand fathers in honour.]
- 61. cf. nāsti strīnām pṛthag yajāo na vratam nāpyu poṣaṇam/ (v. 155). [For women there is no separate sacrifice nor vow nor fasting.]
- 62. For description, see account of the contents of the Mahānirvāṇa-tantra.
- 63. cf. rtvik-putrādayo devi smṛtyuktā bahavaḥ priye!
 tantroktā paramešāni pūjādau naiva kārayet!!
 purohitaṃ samāniya yadi pūjādikārayet!
 tasya sarvā-rtha=hāniḥ syāt kruddhā bhavati kālikā!!
 [O dear Goddess, O Supreme consort of Lord, many persons, viz. Rtvik-putra (son of a Rtvik priest) etc. are stated in Smṛti and Tantra; one should not engage them in (Tāntric) worship, etc. If after having brought the priest one performs (Tāntric) worship, etc., then all his objects will be lost, (and) Kālī becomes angry.]
 Gupta-sādhana-tantra quoted in the Prāṇatoṣiṇī.
- 64. Kumārī tu sarvajātiyā eva pūjyā prašastā (Prāṇatoṣiṇī).
 [Virgin girls of all castes are to be worshipped and are commendable.]
- 65. A woman practising Kulācāra.
- 66. Theft of gold belonging to Brahmana.
- 67. See Glossary.
- 68. It is called Cakrarāja.
- 69. cf. traividyebhyas-trayīm vidyām, etc., Manu-smṛti, vii. 43. catvāro veda-dharmajñāḥ parṣat traividyameva vā /Yājñavalkya-smṛti, 1.1.9.

(tisro vidyā adhīyanta iti traividyāḥ teṣām samūhaḥ traividya — Mitāksarā).

70. See our observations on Pañcatattva.

VI. Kālī: The Favourite Mother-Goddess

The Śākta cult is very popular in Bengal. The worship of Śakti as Kall is widespread.1 There are countless temples containing images of Kālī who is regularly worshipped. We hear of mānats,2 made to Kālī, among all classes of people. Stories are current about devotees having got the darsan of Kālī in dream. Rāmakrsna Paramahamsa dedicated his life to the meditation on, and the worship of, this goddess. He is reported to have shown the goddess, in her orginal form, to his famous disciple, Vivekānanda. We find the mass worship of her by people in marketplaces, particularly on the Diwali day. Some unforgettable devotional songs, particularly those of Ramprasad, were inspired by devotion to Kālī. Her worship has been the bounden duty, nay an indispensable part of life of the descendants of such Kali-sadhakas as Purnananda, Sarvavidya, etc. In Calcutta, the locality called Kalighat, has been named after Kālī established there. It is one of the Śākta Pithas. Thousands of people throng there, particularly on Amavasya3 and other days regarded as especially favourite to Kālī. In some temples, images of the deity, made of clay, stone or metal, are established permanently. On festive occasions, and when epidemic diseases like Cholera take heavy toll of lives, Raksā-Kālī or Śmaśāna Kālī is publicly worshipped.

It is worthwhile to see how and when Kālī was conceived as a deity. It is also interesting to trace the origin of her great popularity in Bengal. In doing so, we shall also consider her different forms and briefly deal with the rites and customs connected with her worship.

The tendency of tracing the origin of all deities in the Veda has prompted some to identify Kālī with Rātri-devī who owes her existence to the Rātri-sūkta (x. 127) of the Rgveda. Apart from the dubious propriety of this identification, the great question that confronts us is whether the above Sūkta at all forms an integral part of the Rgveda. It is a khila (supplement) supposed to be a later interpolation. Some scholars are inclined to find, in the fierce goddess Nirrti of the Veda, the precursor of the later Kālī. Nirrti is mentioned as dark and dreadful in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (vii. 2.7). She is represented as pāśahastā (with a noose in hand) in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (iv. 17).

The word Kālī occurs, for the first time, in the *Mundakopaniṣad* where it is the designation of one of the seven tongues of the sacrificial fire.



Kālī is mentioned at some places of the *Mahābhārata*. Her description in the epic reminds one of the description in the Purāṇas. She has red eyes and face, red garland and unguents, has a noose in hand and is terrible.

Kālidāsa has mentioned Kālī and Kālikā⁶ in the *Kumārasambhava* (vii. 39) and the *Raghuvaṃśa* (xi. 15) where the descriptions *Kapīlābharaṇā* and *Calakapālakuṇḍalā* occur respectively.

References to this goddess directly or indirectly are scattered in Sanskrit literature. Candi, whose worship with blood has been described in the Kādambari of Baṇabhaṭṭa (first half of the seventh century), appears to be identical with Kālī. The awesome, dark goddess Karālā, described in Mālatīmādhava (act V) of Bhavabhtīti (c. seventh century) as being worshipped with human flesh, in a shrine close to a cremation ground, is none but Kālī. According to the Adbhutarāmāyaṇa (xxv. 29-31), Sītā, having assumed her own form as Kālī, slew Rāvaṇa.

Kālī, in her fierce aspect, is mentioned in the Kinsariya stone inscription of 999 A.D.⁷

Kālī appears to be a curious blend of Umā, Nārāyaṇī, Cāmuṇḍā, Satī, Durgā, etc.⁸ All these have been fused into this Mahādevī.

It is in the Purāṇas, that Kālī appears in her various forms and full glory. Among such Purāṇas, the most noteworthy are the Mārkaṇḍeya, Viṣṇudharmottara, Bhaviṣya, Devī and Kālikā. Her origin is described in the Devīmāhātmya or Caṇḍī of the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa (vii.5 pp.). To repel the attacking demons, led by Caṇḍa and Muṇḍa, she came out of the forehead of the Divine Mother who became dark with indignation. Kālī had a huge and horrible face and a fearful look. With red and sunken eyes and lolling tongue, she had a sword, a noose and a club. She put on tiger-skin, and had a garland of human heads. Her raucous voice filled the directions. In the Viṣṇudharmottara, Bhadrakālī appears as charming and noble. In works like the Karaṇāgama, Caṇḍīkalpa, etc., there are descriptions of Mahākālī and Bhadrakālī.

The importance of Kālī⁹ in the Purāṇas is indicated by the fact that she heads¹⁰ the list of ten Mahāvidyās.

Regarding the forms of the deity, current in Bengal, and the mode of worship, the following works are authoritative: Mahānirvāṇa-tantra, Kālī-tantra, Tantrasāra of Kṛṣṇānanda and the Śyāmārahasya of Pūrṇānanda. Other works also on this subject exclusively, or along with other topics, were written in Bengal. Some of these are the Prānatosinī



of Rāmatoṣaṇa. Śyāmākalpalatikā of Mathurānātha, Śāktānandataraṅginī and Tārā-rahasya of Brahmānanda, Kālīkādi-sahasra-nāmastuti-ṭīkā¹¹ of Pūrṇānanda, Tārā-rahasya-vṛttī of Gauḍiya Śaṃkara, Abhijāāna-ratnāvalī of Rāmānanda, Kālī-tattva-sudhābindu of Kālīprasāda, Kālī-sarvasva-sampuṭa of Śrīkṛṣṇa, Tārārcana-candrikā of Jagannātha. Tārāvilāsodaya of Vāsudeva, Tārā-bhakti-taraṅgiṇī of Kāśīnātha, Śyāmākalpalatā of Rāmacandra, Śyāmā-pūjā-paddhati of Cakravartī. Śyāmā-ratna of Yādavendra, Śyāmārcana-candrikā of Ratnagarbha, Śyāmā-santoṣaṇa-stotra of Kāśīnātha Tarkapaficānana, Śyāmā-saparyāvidhi of Kāśīnatha Tarkātaṃkāra, Śyāmā-stava-ṭīkā of Durgārāma and the Pañcamaveda-sāra-nirṇaya of Haragovinda Rāya. The number of the above works and their manuscripts, preserved at various places, are an index to the wide popularity of the Śākta cult in Bengal.

The forms of Kālī, mentioned in the Tāntric works of Bengal, are as follows: Dakṣiṇakālikā, Siddhakālī, Guhyakālī, Bhadrakālī, Śmaśānakālī, Rakṣākālī or Mahākālī. Other forms are described in the Śyāmārahasya (vi. 5, xv. 22).

The most popular form in Bengal is Daksinakālikā. 12 She is described as follows: four hands, hideous face, dark like cloud, lolling tongue, a garland of human heads, body smeared with blood dripping from these heads, two corpses used as ear-ornaments, girdle of hands of dead bodies, blood trickling through corners of the mouth, three eves bright as the orb of the rising sun, hair hanging loose on the right side, protruding teeth, large heaving breasts, naked, placed on the chest of Mahādeva lying like one dead, surrounded on all sides by howling and terrible jackals. According to the Tantrasara, her upper left hand holds a sword, the lower left one holds a severed human head, hte right upper hands are represented as granting freedom from fear and boon. She is stated to live on the cremation ground. According to the Guptasādhana-tantra (vi), quoted in the Tantrasāra, she is stated to have her left foot as ālīdha¹³ and the right as pratyālīdha.¹⁴ There is a tradition that Krsnananda, author of the Tantrasara, conceived the form of Daksinakali for the first time, and since then it has been widely current in Bengal. This view is, perhaps, not correct; because this form occurs in pre-Kṛṣṇāṇanda works also. May be that, owing to the tremendous influence of Krsnananda, the worship of this form gained in popularity.

To even a casual observer it may appear ludicrous and incongruous with the Indian tradition that Siva, husband of Kālī, should lie under the



feet of his consort, Kālī. Ancient India looked upon the husband as highly venerable to the wife; patireko guruḥ strinām. Manu says (v. 155)- patiṃ śuśrūṣate yena tena svarge mahiyate; by serving the husband a woman is honoured in heaven.

A dhyāna of Kālī represents her as engaged in viparīta-rati or puruṣāyita position in sexual union with Mahākāla (Śiva). An image of Kālī representing her as sitting naked on Śiva lying on his back, with his penis thrust into her sex-organ.

Mythological accounts state that Kālī, having defeated the demons and killed them, trampled over their corpses. In course of time, perhaps, the idea of *viparītarati* and demons' corpses under her feet were confused and Śiva was represented as a corpse.

About the peculiar appearance of Dakṣiṇā Kālī, the most popular image, there is a legend. One night, Kṛṣṇānanda Āgamavāgiśa (or, some other devotee) was thinking about the form of the image of Kālī when the goddess appeared and asked him to make it, on the model of the first person to be met by him the next morning. Next morning he saw a woman, with one foot on the ground and the other on the dung heap and with her right hand raised and holding cowdung, engaged in sticking cowdung cakes on the walls of her house. At the sight of him, she became ashamed and pressed her tongue between her teeth. This position of the woman supplied the model of the Kālī-image.¹⁵

A conjecture may, perhaps, be hazarded that the woman-superior position of the image indicates a society in which matriarchy prevailed.

Besides the daily worship of Kālī, 16 in the images established in shrines or residential houses, she is particularly worshipped on the following occasions: Diwāli 17 night, Raṭantī caturdasī and the fourteenth night of the dark half of the month of Jyaiṣtha. The deity, worshipped on Raṭantī caturdasī (i.e. 14th day of the dark fortnight of the month of Māgha) is designated as Raṭantī. In the fourteenth night of the dark half of the month of Jyaiṣṭha, she is called Phalahārinī. The worship on the Diwāli night is by far the most popular. It is performed with great gusto and grandeur; but, this practice does not seem to be based on any old authority. Chintaharan Chakravarti has found 18 the oldest reference in the Śyāmā-saparyā-vidhi of Kāsīnātha, composed as late as Śaka 1699 (*1777 A.D.). C. Chakravarti has found, in the above work, 19 passages quoted from Purāṇas and Tantras in support of the worship on the Diwāli day. Rājā Kṛṣṇacandra of Nadiya (eighteenth century), to whom tradition attributes many good ritualistic practices prevalent in Bengal,



is said to have ordered all his subjects to perform this worship, and threatened them with penalty on their failure. Since then, thousands of images began to be worshipped on this occasion in the district of Nadiya alone. The Rājā's grandson, Išānacandra, is reported to have lavishly spent money on offerings to the deity on this occasion.

Animal-sacrifice is an indispensable part of Kālī worhsip. Goat, sheep and buffaloes are the animals commonly sacrificed. There are stories about human sacrifice too. Some well-known shrines of Kālī are said to stand on five human heads (pañca-muṇḍī). These heads were probably of the persons sacrificed in honour of Kālī. There is a pañca-muṇḍī āsana at Halisahar, a suburb of Calcutta, where the famous devotee-singer Rāmprasād is said to have attained Siddhi.

The Mahānirvāna-tantra explains23 the significance of the current form of Kali in an interesting manner. The form of the goddess is determined, for the benefit of devotees, in accordance with qualities and activities. The colours white, yellow, etc., are merged in black. Similarly, all beings enter into Kali. That is why, for the benefit of the Yogini, the goddess, who is in reality devoid of attributes and form, has been represented as black. The moon-mark on the forehead of this symbol of eternity, the benign and changeless Devi, signifies the repository of nectar. She views this world, made with a limitation of time, clearly with the eternal sun, moon and fire; hence she has three eyes. She chews and devours all creatures; therefore, she is represented as wearing a cloth in the shape of their blood. Her activity in saving the creatures from danger and impelling them to action are represented by the hand-poses of vara-dana (gift of boon) and abhaya-dana (granting freedom from fear). She pervades the worlds produced by the quality of rajas; so, she is placed on a seat of red lotus. The goddess, witnessing everything, drinks wine that causes moha, and looks upon the creation arising from Kāla (Time) and engaged in various sports. The Tantra says that, for the benefit of the devotees of small intellect, various forms of the goddess have been conceived.

Some are of the opinion that Käli was originally a non-Aryan goddess. She was subsequently admitted to the Aryan pantheon. After her recognition within the Aryan fold, spiritual significance was imparted to her traits and appearance. The following non-Aryan elements in her conception and worship are pointed out. In the first place, her very appearance — dark with a hideous face, decked with human heads, having blood-stains—fits ill with the general Aryan conception of gods.



Indeed, the very word deva, denoting god, is derived from the root div to shine. The Vedic conception of gods and goddesses is quite opposed to the description of Kali. It has been held that the human heads, associated with her, point to the period when the aborigines resorted to head-hunting. The howling jackals, surrounding the goddess, also remind one of forest-life. Contrary to the usual practice, Kali is worshipped at night. This, according to the advocates of the non-Aryan origin of Kali, appears to hint at the fact that the uncivilised people, who lived by plunder and pillage, used to reside in hideouts where, under the cover of darkness, they used to worship the deity. The use of wine, as an essential offering to her, seems to indicate a non-Aryan practice. Wine, according to Dharmaśāstras, is not only a taboo for the upper classes of people, particularly for Brahmanas; the drinking of surā constitutes a Mahāpātaka (grave sin) for which the maximum penalty is death. The practice of sacrificing human beings before the goddess appears to have been borrowed from the non-Aryans.

The very designation Śmaśāna-Kālī²⁴ appears to hint at her non-Aryan origin. The description of the appearance of this deity and the rites and practices relating to her worship seem to be offensive to Aryan taste. She is jet black, and naked with a skull filled with wine and a human head severed a short while ago. She chews raw flesh, and is always intoxicated. She resides in the cremation ground which is the fittest place for her worship.

In this connexion, it may be noted that there is evidence of the worship of Devi by the aborigines. The Harivamsa (Viṣṇuparvan, III. 7-8 Vaṅgavāsī Ed.) mentions the worship of Kātyāyanī²⁵ and Kauśikī²⁶ on the Vindhya mountain by aboriginal tribes like Śabaras, Barbaras and Pulindas. Kātyāyanī and Kauśikī are designations of Durgā. As stated before, Durgā and several other goddesses have been fused into a single Kālī. In his Prākrit poem, Gaüdavaho, Vākpatirāja (eighth century) has mentioned the worship of goddess Parṇaśabarī, covered with leaves, by Śabaras. This might be a form of Kālī. The worship of Kālī by dacoits and robbers is too well known to be dealt with in detail. This practice may be a survival of her worship by the plundering aborigines.

We shall conclude this chapter with the following hymn²⁷ in honour of Kälī. It is interesting in that every word begins with Ka, the initial letter of the name Kālī and the first consonant in the alphabet.



hrim kāli frim karāli ca krim kalyāni kalāvati/ kamalā kali-darpaghnī, kapardīša-krpānvitā// Kālikā kālamātā ca kālānala-samadyutihi Kapardini karālāsvā karunāmrta-sāgarā// Krpāmayi krpādhārā krpāpārā krpāgamāl Krsanuh kapila krsna krsnananda-vivardhini// Kālarātrih kāmarūpā kāma-pāsā-vimocinī/ Kadambini kaladhara kali-kalmasa-nasini// Kumāri-pūjana-pritā kumāri-pūjakālayā/ Kumāri-bhojanānandā kumāri-rūpa-dhārini// Kadamba-vana-samcārā kadamba-vana-vāsini/ Kadamba-puspa-santosā kadamba-puspa-mālinī// Kisori kalakantha ca kalanada-ninadini/ Kādambini-pāna-ratā tathā Kādambari-priyā// Kapāla-pātra-niratā kankāla-mālā-dhārini/ Kamalāsana-santustā kamalāsana-vāsinī/ Kamalālaya-madhyasthā kamalāmoda-modinii Kala-hamsa-gatih kalivya-nāsinī kāmarūpinī// Kāmarūpa-krta-vāsā kāma-patha-vilāsinīl Kamaniya kalpalata kamaniya-vibhasana// Kāmaniya-gunārādhyā komlāngi krsodaril Karunāmrta-santosā kāranānanda-siddhidā// Kāranānanda-japestā kāranārcana-harsitāl Kāranārnava-sammagnā kāranā-varta-pālinī// Kastūri-saurabhamodā kastūri-tilakojivalā! Kastūri-pūjana-ratā kastūri-pūjaka-privā// Kastūri-dāha-jananī kastūri-mrga-tosinī/ Kastūrī-bhojana-prītā karpūrā-moda-moditā/ Karpūra-mālā-bharanā karpūra-candano-ksitā// Karpūra kāranā-hlādā karpūrā-mrta-pāyinī/ Karpūra-sāgara-snātā karpūra-sāgarālayā!! Kūrca-bija-japa-pritā kūrca-japa-parāyanā! Kulinā kaulikā-rādhyā kaulika-priya-kāriņi// Kulācārā kautukini kulāmārea-pradaršini/ Kāśiśvarī kasta-hartri kāśiśa-vara-dāyini/ Kāsisvara-krtāmodā kāsisvara-manoramā// Kala-mañjira-caranā kvanat-kāñci-vibhūsanā/ Kāncana-dri-krtagārā kāncana-cala-kaumudi// Kāmabīja-japānandā kāmabīja-svarūpinī/ Kumatighni Kulinari-nasini kulakamini/ TURU/ C , OM UN VERSITY OF CAL FORN A There is a vivid description of the image of Kālī in the following lines of her dhyāna:

Savārūdhām mahābhimām ghoradamstrām varapradām/
hāsyayuktām trinetrām ca kapālakartrkākarām/
muktakesīm lolajihavām pivantīm rudhiram muhuḥ/
caturbāhuyutām devim varābhayakarām Smaret//
[Kartrkā—small sword, knife.]

Karālavadanām ghorām muktakesīm caturbhujām/ kālikām dakṣiṇām divyām muṇḍamālāvivhūṣitām//

evam samcintayet kālim smasanālayavāsinīm/

NOTES

- 1. The Brahmayāmala states Kālikā vangadeśe ca: it means that Devī is worshipped under the designation of Kālikā in Bengal.
- Resolve to worship a deity or to offer certain articles on the fulfilment of a desire.
- 3. New-moon day.
- 4. Vide Appendix II (by B.L. Mukherji) to Woodroffe's Shakti and Shākta.
- 5. e.g. in the Sauptika-parvan. Here the sleeping heroes were being killed by Aśvathāman. Then the heroes visualised the fierce Kālī. Kālī, Mahākālī, Bhadrakālī are mentioned among the epithets of Durgā in the Durgāstotra of Arjuna in the Bhīṣmaparvan (23).
- 6. Explained by Mallinātha as ghanāvalī (mass of clouds).
- 7. Epigraphia Indica, XII, p. 59.
- 8. The mantra, with which salutation is made to Kālī, is sarvamangala-mangalye sive sarvārtha-sādhike/ saraņye tryambake gaurī nārāyaņi namo'stu te//
- 9. The derivative meaning of the term is given as follows in the Mahānirvāṇa-tantra (iv. 32) Kāla-saṃgrasanāt kālī (Vaṅgavāsī ed.). The Prāṇatoṣiṇī reads saṃkalanāt for saṃgrasanāt. Kālī is so called as she devours or seizes time.
- 10. The Mahānirvāņa (iv. 32) describes her as sarveṣām ādirūpiņī.
- 11. This and the following works are yet unpublished. For MSS of these works, see Appendix I.
- 12. See Kālī-tantra, i. 27 ff., quoted in the Tantrasāra. According to the Śyāmārahasya (iv. 5), Kālī is called dakṣiṇā as she is generous in granting boons.

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- 13. 'A particular attitude in shooting (the right knee advanced, the left leg drawn back.' M. Williams.
- 14. Opposite of alidha above.
- 15. For the conception of Kālī image, see N.N. Bhattacharya, *History of Tantire Religion*, pp. 349, 383.
- For elaborate procedural matters, see N.K. Lahidi, Kalyarcanacandrika.
- 17. Amāvasyā of the month of Kārtika. The word is from dīpāvalī (rows of lights). On this day, also called dīpānvitā (with lights), series of lights are placed in the house. The idea is that these lights show the paths, leading to heaven, to the spirits of the ancestors who are supposed to have come on the occasion of Mahālayā i.e., on the previous Amāvasyā day.
- 18. See his Tantras—Studies, etc., p. 92.
- 19. MS in Asiatic Soc., Calcutta, fol. 94a.
- 20. W. Ward, A View of History . . . Religion of the Hindoos, II, p. 124.
- 21. The Viśvasāra-tantra (Paţala V) states that Guhyakālī is pleased with the meat of godhā.
- 22. On human sacrifice, see *Pañca-tattva* under Principal Topics of Bengal Tantra.
- 23. Vangavāsī ed., xiii. 2-13.
- 24. Described in Śyāmārahasya, vi. 21, 22; Tantrasāra, Vangavāsī Ed., p. 157.
- 25. Supposed by some to be so called after the tribe known as Kätya.
- 26. Believed by some to be so called after the tribe known as Kauśika.
- 27. Mahānirvāņa-tantra (Vangavāsī Ed.), vii. 12-31.

VII. Bengal Tantra and Durgā¹

The name 'Durgā' occurs in many of the Tantras of Bengal. The Tantrasāra mentions Durgā-mantra, Mahiṣa-mardinī-mantra, Jaya-durgā-mantra and Śūlinī-mantra. The following forms of Durgā emerge from the dhyānas stated respectively in connexion with the above.

- 1. Resting on a lion, moon-crested, having complexion like marakata (emerald), holding śańkha, cakra, dhanus, and śara in her four hands, three-eyed, wearing ornaments like necklace, bracelet, girdle and anklet, jewelled earrings, etc.
- 2. Possessed of complexion like cloud (?)² causing fear to enemies with crooked look, having a digit of the moon on the crest, holding a conch-shell, a disc, a sword and arrow with her four hands, three-eyed, riding on a lion's neck, filling the three worlds with lustre, surrounded by gods, served by those desirous of success.
- 3. Riding on a lion, having complexion like clouds surcharged with water, moon-crested, three-eyed, causing fear to fighters of the opposite side.

In connexion with other *Durgā-mantras*, laid down in the *Tantrasāra*, the following *dhyāna* occurs:

Riding on a lion's neck, decked with many ornaments, four-armed, having a serpent-like sacred thread, putting on a red cloth, possessed of body shining like the morning sun, holding in her hands deer's hair, bow, noose and goad (ankuśa), served by sages like Nārada.

A Durgā-homa is also mentioned in the Tantrasāra. Different results are obtained by performing this homa with different substances and flowers. For example, by using lotuses one can vanquish enemies. By using marica one can secure the death of the enemy. By using palāśa flowers one can acquire prosperity.

The Tantrasāra contains also a Śatanāma-stotra of Durgā, a Mahiṣa-mardinī-stotra, a Durgā-kavaca and a Mahiṣa-mardinī-kavaca. It also states a Durgā-yantra or a diagram in which Durgā is to be meditated upon and worshipped.

Though $Durg\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ as such has not been dealt with in the work, the following facts about it can be gathered from incidental remarks. The articles, to be offered in the worship, are: fish, meat, soup, cakes, etc. The animals, to be sacrificed, are mrga (deer), sasaka (hare) salaka



yaka (porcupine), buffalo, goat, horse, elephant, camel and ass. Among the birds to be offered are the crow, the parrot and the vulture. What is remarkable is that Tantra mentions human beings among the offerings to the goddess.

Durgā has been conceived as destroying enemies, saving a person from distress, helping one in the acquisition of whatever is desired, bringing even kings under the control of the worshipper, granting all material welfare, etc.

The Prāṇatoṣiṇī is the only published work among the Tantras of Bengal, which deals systematically with Durgā-pūjā. The question may arise—why Durgā-pūjā was not dealt with as a separate topic by the authors of Tāntric works preceding the Prāṇatoṣinī. The reason seems to be that Kālī having dominated in the Tāntric pantheon, the earlier authors naturally were more concerned with her. But, Durgā-pūjā, the procedure of which was marked by Tāntric elements, being current in Bengal, they could not dispense with this goddess.

The $Pr\bar{a}natosin\bar{i}$ came into being in 1821 A.D. i.e. about a century later than the probable introduction of $Durg\bar{a}-p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ in a pompous form by Kṛṣṇācandra (1710-1783 A.D.). So, by the time of origin of the $Pr\bar{a}natosin\bar{i}$, this $P\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ became the major annual festival of the Bengals. This was, perhaps, the reason of its elaborate treatment in this work.

Even if we are to believe that Kaṃsanārāyaṇa, a local chief, who was a contemporary of Akbar (reign 1556-1605) according to some or of Shahjahan (reign 1628-1657) according to others, introduced this $P\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ our above argument does not lose force; because while the latter is supposed only to have introduced this $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ in this province, the former is believed to have added a new dimension to it. In this connexion, it cites the $Matsya-s\bar{u}kta-mah\bar{a}tantra$, $Devipur\bar{a}na$ and the $Durg\bar{a}-bhakti-tarangin\bar{i}$ as the principal authorities. The rules and regulations about the $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ are substantially the same as those given in the works on $Durg\bar{a}-p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, composed by the writers of Bengal.³ A few interesting facts, found in the $Pr\bar{a}natosin\bar{i}$, are stated below.

The symbols, on which Durgā can be worshipped, are as follows: picture, image, bel (tree?), mahāyoni, candrabimba (manuscript?), stone-slab, yoni-maṇḍala, pādukā (mark like foot-print?), sword, mahābimba (?), holy place, bank of the Ganges. A householder is prohibited to use an earthen image. The author adds that an earthen image, with straw within, is not forbidden. Also prohibited for a householder is an image measuring three cubits and a half; a smaller image is allowed for him.



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As regards the number of arms of the goddess, the following rules are given on authority; the number varies in accordance with the region in which the goddess is worshipped.

Eight arms: Orissa, Bihar, Madhyadeśa, Ayodhyā, Saurāṣṭra, Cohāra (?), Sylhet, Kośala, Savavallaka?

Eighteen arms: Mahendra, Himālaya, Kuru land, Mathurā, Kedāra, Rāmaṭha.

Twelve arms: Makaranda, Virāţa.

Ten arms: Kaumāra, Gauda, Pāripātra, Dakṣiṇa (?), Mahārāṣṭra, Gajāhvaya (?).

Four arms: Pūrņa (?), Nepāla, Kacchameśa, Kankana.

Two arms: Near the ocean.

The author adds that, in $Durg\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, a kind of sound, made by the voice of women⁴, is auspicious.

The image, described in the *Prāṇatoṣiṇī*, corresponds to the image usually worshipped at present in Bengal. The image of the goddess is accompanied by those of Kārtika, Gaṇeśa, Lakṣmī, Sarasvatī, Brahmā, Sāvitrī, demon, lion, buffalo, peacock, rat, etc.

A noteworthy fact about the *Prāṇatoṣiṇī* is that, though the earlier authorities mention human beings and wine among the offerings to the goddess, the author clearly forbids these two things for Brāhmaṇa worshippers.⁵

It should be noted that $\hat{S}abarotsava$ is ordained in the Bengal works on $Durg\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ as a festival on the $Da\hat{s}am\bar{t}$ or last day of the $P\bar{u}j\bar{a}$. In it the participants are required to besmear their bodies with mud and dust, cover the same with leaves of trees, and abuse one another in filthy language. This does not occur in Tantra.

NOTES

1. For the curious we set forth the following information.

The term Durgā (fem.) and Durga (neuter) appear to have the same basic meaning. Also used in the masculine gender, the word Durga appears to have been used in the earliest times in the Atharvaveda, Manu-smṛti, Mahābhārata etc. Its general meaning is difficult of access, impassable, unattaintable. In the well-known Upaniṣadic line durgaṃ pathastat kavayo vadanti also, the word conveys the same meaning. Subsequently it came to mean a difficult narrow passage, citadel, stronghold, fort etc. In the

masculine gender, it means a demon of this name supposed to have been slain by Goddess Durgā, as stated in the Skandapurāṇa, Durgā, when denoting a deity, means One who can be approached or whose favour can be obtained through great pain. We do not know how and when Durgādevī was included in the Brahmanical pantheon. The words 'Durgā' and 'Durgi', as the name of a deity, appears to have been used, for the first time, in the Taittīrīya Āraṇyaka X. 2, 3 and X. 1,7 respectively. Durgā is identified with Umā who appears to have been mentioned in the Harivaṃśa, Kumārasambhava, Raghuvamśa, etc.

Eulogies of Goddess *Durgā* occur in the Bhiṣmaparvan and Virāṭaparvan of the *Mahābhārata* which contains earlier and later portions, its present form dating back, according to Winternitz, to about the fourth century A.D.

A numismatic evidence points to the prevalence of $Durg\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ at least about 300 A.D. A $Simhav\bar{a}hin\bar{i}$ Goddess is found on the reverse of the coins of Candragupta I of the Gupta dynasty (C. 305-325 A.D.) Vide Altekar's Gupta Gold Coins etc. (pp. xliv-v) and Allan's Catalogue of Gupta Coins, lxxxiii.

Still earlier prevalence of the worship of this deity seems to be proved by a coin of the Kuṣāṇa king Kaniska (1st or 2nd cent. A.D.). Its reverse depicts the figure of a goddess with a lunar crescent seated full face on a lion crouching left and the goddess appearing with a noose and a sceptre. Thus, the figure seems to be that of $Durg\bar{a}$.

According to the Kālikā Purāṇa (X. 26.3), dating back to about the tenth century A.D., whose earlier version is, perhaps, hinted at by Raghunandana (16th cent.) as duṣprāpya, Durgā was awakened in autumn, which is not the proper season, and worshipped for favouring Rāma against Rāvaṇa. Similar stories occur also in the Devi-bhāgavata (iii. 30) and Mahābhāgavata Purāṇas (36, 42). Curiously enough, all these Purāṇas were probably composed or compiled in Bengal. It may be noted that the unseasonal worship of the goddess, most popular in Bengal, does not occur in the original Rāmāyaṇa but in its Bengali version by Kṛttivās, a pre-Caitanya writer.

 $Durg\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, in the present form, was introduced in Bengal by Kṛṣṇacandra, a big landlord of Nadiyā in W. Bengal, in the 18th century.



The Smrti digests of Bengal, dealing with the $P\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, are the following:

Kālaviveka of Jijūtavāhana (c. bet. 11th and 13th cent.) Durgot-sava-viveka of Šūlapāņi (C. bet. the 11th and 15th cent.), a work of the same title by Śrinātha Ācāryacūḍāmaņi (c. bet. 15th and 16th cent.), the Durgotsava-tatīva by Raghuvandana (16th cent.)

- 2. Kāmābhrabhā meaning is not clear.
- 3. On this subject, the present author has written a work which is proposed to be published shortly.
- 4. It is popularly called ulu in West Bengal and jokāra in East Bengal. In dictionaries, it is variously referred to as hulahuli, hulihuli, huluhulu, etc. the word Ulūli, in this sense, occurs in the Atharvaveda (xxxi. 9.6). This peculiar sound is mentioned in the Naiṣadha-carita (xiv. 49), Chāndogya Upaniṣad (iii. 19.3.) For a discussion on it, see K.K. Handiqui's introduction to Naiṣadhacarita, Eng. Trs.
- 5. na-dadyād brāhmaņo madyam mānuṣam ca/ 1

VIII. Varņāśrama-Dharma and Ācāras

The Tantras of Bengal do not recognise the four conventional stages of life. The Mahānirvāṇa, followed by the Prāṇatoṣiṇi, recognises two stages, viz. Gārhasthya (householdership) and Bhaikṣya (living on alms, mendicancy).¹ All people are said to be entitled to the duties of these two āśramas.² Those who have resorted to the last stage of life are designated as Avadhūta. In Kali Age, Avadhūtāśrama has been stated as Saṃnyāsa. It is interesting to note that even a householder, observing certain practices, can be an Avadhūta if Brahma-jñāna dawns upon him. Escapism has been strongly condemned. One is doomed to hell if one leaves behind the old parents, minor children, devoted wife and retires to the forest. A person is allowed to receive the initiation of saṃnyāsa, and take to the forest only when he has completed his duties towards his family and is permitted by relatives to do so.

Avadhiitas

Avadhūtas are divided into two broad classes, viz. Grhastha and Sadāsiva. A Grhastha will be devoted to guru, acquire knowledge, be pious both internally and externally, devoid of desire, engaged in the worship of Śiva. He will also practise obeisance with eight parts, viz. knees, feet, hands, chest, mind or intellect, head, speech and sight. An Avadhūta of the second class is naked, takes to paricatattva, is always joyful, calm. He will give away everything, enjoy everything; he will have no distinction of caste, and should be engaged in religious practices. In the Kali Age, an Avadhūta of the former type is debarred from taking wine. Samvit (knowledge) has been said to be superior to wine.³

Those, living in the house (grhastha), worship Brahma-mantra and are called brahmāvadhūta.

Those who have undergone $p\bar{u}rn\bar{a}$ -bhişeka are called Śaivāva-dhūtas. Again they can be $p\bar{u}rna$ (complete) and $ap\bar{u}rna$ (incomplete) the former being called Paramahansa and the latter Parivrat.

The fourth kind of Avadhūta is designated as Hamsa. The other three practise yoga and take to bhoga. A Hamsa is debarred from association with a woman; he cannot possess anything. He should give up all the duties and signs of a householder. To him no Sastric injunction nor prohibition applies. He should roam the world at will without any desire and effort to do anything. Devoid of grief and delusion, he will



always be self-contented. He will be without a house, have fortitude, be devoid of attachments, tranquil, unaffected by pleasure and pain, cold and heat, etc. He has nothing to meditate upon, and is absolutely free.

A Śaivāvadhūta has got to do no rite connected with gods, manes and sages.4

Men, who are foolish or learned, whether belonging to a high or low caste, even if they are Candalas, are equal if they resort to Kulācāra.

All the rites, performed by Avadhūtas, are completed with the mantra Om tat sat which is stated to be the great mantra, the cause of all causes (sarva-kāraṇa-kāraṇam); by practising it one can be Śiva (bhaven mṛtyunjayaḥ svayam). Japa, homa, pratiṣṭhā, saṃskāra—in fact, all the rites are supposed to be performed only if this mantra is recited. It is easy to use (sukhasādhya), free from prolixity (abāhulyam) and conducive to complete effect (saṃpūrṇa-phala-dāyaka). This mantra is the quintessence (sārāt sāratara) of Nigamas, Āgamas and Tantras. It is the sanctifier of all objects including the tattvas. One repeating it, with its meaning comprehended, becomes identified with Brahman.

The Kulayogins are regarded as such holy persons that by merely seeing, touching and talking with them or by causing their satisfaction one secures the result of visiting all the holy places.

As regards the caste-system, Bengal Tantra makes a considerable departure from the conventional varṇa-dharma. The following facts about the attitude of Tantra towards varṇa-dharma can be gleaned from the Mahānirvāṇa-tantra.

Besides the four conventional castes, the *Mahānirvāṇa* provides for a caste called *Sāmānya* (viii. 5). Though the people coming under *Sāmānya* are not specified, yet it seems to include all beyond the pale of the four castes.

In respect of the prasāda of Kālī no caste distinction is observed. Same is the case with Śaiva-vivāha,⁵ the two Cakras called Bhairavi⁶ and Tattva.⁷ For use in Cakras, articles for worship, raw or cooked, can be brought by a member of any caste, even by those beyond the fold of caste-system, viz. Mleccha, Śvapaca (Caṇḍāla), Kirāta or Hūṇa. Such articles are purified as soon as put into the hands of one who is technically designated as Vira. Observance of distinction, based on caste or pedigree, is prohibited also in Brahmacakra.⁸ Wine, as one of the Pañcatattvas, is not defiled by the touch of anybody. The same remark



is applicable to mamsa; it may be collected from any place, anybody can slaughter the animals whose meat is offered to deities. No castedistinction is observed in the case of mahāprasāda of the Supreme Brahman. Even the best of Brahmanas can partake of it even if it is offered by a man of inferior caste.

All castes, including Samanya, are entitled to Kulavadhutasamskära. It should be added that Brähmanas are held in high esteem.9 Excepting certain Tantric rites, people are directed to do the duties of their respective castes. For a Brahmana only a wife of the Brahmana caste is dharma-patni; she can participate in religious rites with the husband. His wife of a different caste is Kāma-patni, i.e. for enjoyment only.

Acaras

Various acaras (forms of worship and ways of life) have been recognised in Bengal Tantra. Kulācāra, the ācāra par excellence, has been dealt with or referred to in almost all the works. Various acaras have been enumerated¹⁰ and described in the Prānatosinī. Kulācāra has been described in detail in the Tantrasara and, to some extent, in the Mahānirvāna also. These are briefly described below:

Vedācāra—rising in brāhma muhūrta, salutation of guru, worship of deity meditating upon it in the sahasrāra lotus, with five articles. Vāgbhava-bija is to be recited and paramā kalā to be meditated upon. On another authority, it is stated that, after finishing morning duties, he should again be on the bed, meditate on guru and the desired deity in the thousand-petalled lotus in the head. According to various authorities, the following practices are recognised: meditation on Ugratārinī, in the form of a lotus fibre, from the mūlādhāra to brahma-randhra; she has the brilliance of a crore of suns and the coolness of a crore of moons, etc. Mental worship of the guru has been commended. Different dhyanas and stotras of the guru are laid down by different authorities.

Vaisnavācāra—sexual intercourse and talk of it, violence, speaking ill of others, crookedness and meat-eating should be avoided. The rosary and yantra should never be touched at night. One should worship Visnu, offer all actions to Him and always look upon the world as pervaded by Him.

Saivācāra—it is the same as Vedācāra with the only difference that, in the $Sakta \bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$, animal sacrifice is prescribed while it is prohibited in the Śaiva ācāra.

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Daksinācāra—it is so called as it was practised by sage Daksināmūrti.

Vāmācāra—the Supreme Goddess is to be worshipped according to *Vedācāra*. By day one should be austere like a Brahmacārin, and practise concentration. At night the Goddess should be worshipped with the substitutes of *paāca-tattva*.

Siddhāntācāra—it appears that, for people practising it, animal-sacrifice is allowed in a religious performance.¹¹ It is further said that what is pure and what is impure are purified by Śodhana (purificatory rite). One should be engaged in devapūjā and meditate upon Viṣṇu.

Kulācāra¹²—for a person practising it there is no restriction relating to directions, time, tithi, etc. Nor is there any fixed rule about the sādhana of mahāmantra. Such a man is sometimes virtuous, sometimes fallen from the right path, at times like a ghost or goblin. Such persons move about in various garbs.¹³ They make no distinction between mud and sandalpaste, son and enemy, cremation ground and home, gold and grass. One, observing kulācāra, practises whatever ācāra is ordained in respect of deities. A Kaula is sometimes regarded as belonging to the fifth Āśrama.¹⁴

The practice of $Kul\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$ is prohibited by day¹⁵ and in the presence of others.¹⁶

A Kaula should look upon women with great respect. They are to be regarded as goddesses. He should avoid beating them and speaking ill of them. All sorts of rude dealings with women and crookedness towards them should be avoided.

Such a person should not while away his time by indulging in diceplay, etc. He should spend time by worship of deities, japa, stava, etc. Japa is allowed at all times and at all places. In the worship of the goddess, there is no restriction as to day and night. $P\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is allowed even without bath and with a loaded stomach. $Mah\bar{a}p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is, however, to be performed at night only. $Mah\bar{a}nis\bar{a}$ (i.e. two middle praharas of the night) is the time when Mahākālī is supposed to arrive with her retinue, and grant boons to devotees.

A Kaula should fearlessly move about alone in a cremation ground, solitary forest, empty house, river-bank, etc.

He should be generous, tolerant of censure by others and follow Vaiṣṇavācāra.

Worship of Yogini is hightly beneficial on Kulavāra and in Kulāstamī, particularly caturdašī. Tuesday and Friday are Kulavāras,



Tithis of even number, excepting dvitiyā, dasamī and şaşthī, are Kualtithis propitious for religious performances by a Kaula.

A Kaula should shun hate, shame, fear, sleep, disgust, family, caste, (conventional) conduct; these eight are the fetters getting rid of which jīva can become Śīva. Also to be avoided by a Kaula are expiation, fall from a precipice, renunciation (saṃnyāsa) use of an umbrella, visit to a holy place.

The salutation of a kula tree is one of the morning duties of such a man. The kula trees are: śleşmātaka, karañjaka, nimba, aśvattha, kadamba, plaksa, vata, udumbara, ciñcā.

Kulācāra has been extolled lavishly. It has been stated to be the highest religion. The extra Candāla, versed in it, is superior to a Brāhmaṇa devoid of it. As all rivers merge into an ocean, as the footprints of all animals are lost in those of an elephant, so all other ācāras are lost in kulācāra. The difference between kulācāra and other ācāras is like that between mount Meru and oilseeds, between the sun and firefly. According to all systems of philosophy, one attains it immediately (sadya eva). A yogin is not a bhogin, nor a bhogin is a yogin. But, one practising kulācāra is a combination of both. A Kaula has been stated to be Śiva Himself. The honouring of a Kaula is said to produce the result of worshipping all the gods and goddesses.

In connexion with kulācāra, the Prānatoṣiṇi quotes the Samayācāra-tantra which divides ācāra as ārdra (moist) and śuṣka (dry). In the former, one resorts to pañcatattva, while in the latter, pañcatattva is absent. In the Kali Age, however, ārdrācāra has been declared as especially effective.¹⁹

Some raise the question as to whether or not the above $\bar{a}c\bar{a}ras$ are to be adopted in succession. The spirit of Tantras in this respect seems to be this. One, possessed of $paśubh\bar{a}va$, has to adopt any one of the following— $ved\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$, $vaiṣṇav\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$, $śaiv\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$. After $ś\bar{a}kt\bar{a}bhiṣeka$, everyone becomes inclined to $dakṣiṇ\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$. After $p\bar{u}rṇ\bar{a}bhiṣeka$, a follower of $dakṣiṇ\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$ takes to anyone of the following— $vam\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$, $siddh\bar{a}nt\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$, $kaul\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$.

NOTES

1. cf. jātamātro grhasthaḥ syāt saṃskārād āśramī bhavetl gārhasthyaṃ prathamaṃ kuryāt... tattva-jñāne samutpanne vairāgyam jāyate yadāl



tadā sarvam parityajya samnyāsā-śramam āśrayet! [AS soon as born, one becomes a grhastha, due to sacrament one belongs to a stage. One should at first resort to gārhasthya. When true knowledge arises, Vairāgya (spirit of renunciation arises. Then, having renounced every thing, one should resort to the stage

— Mahānirvāņa, viii. 14, 15.

2. cf. viprāṇām itareśāṃ ca varṇānām prabale kalaul ubhayatrā-śrame devi sarveṣām adhikāritāl

Ibid., viii. 12.

[Kalī being powerful, O Goddess, the Brāhmaṇa and all other castes are entitled to both the stages.]

- 3. cf. samvida-zavayor madhye samvideva gariyasi/
- 4. Mahānirvāņa, xiv. 166.

of renunciation.)

- 5. For description, see in connexion with the contents of the *Mahānirvāna* in the chapter on Tantric Texts of Bengal.
- 6. See Glossary.
- 7. Ibid.
- 8. Ibid.
- 9. For example, see Prānatosini (Brāhmana-praśamsā).
- 10. See description of the contents of the work.
- 11. cf. asvamedhakratau naiva vājihatyā yathā bhavet/
 tathaiva paramesāni yajñe doso na vidyate//
 [As in Asvamedha sacrifice, there is no slaughter of a horse, so also, O Consort of Supreme Lord, there is no fault (in animal sacrifice) in a sacrifice.]

- (Prāṇatoṣiṇi, 1266 B.S., p. 561)

- 12. Also see description of Avadhūtas, Supra.
- 13. cf. antaḥ śāktāḥ bahiḥ śaivāḥ sabhāyāṃ vaiṣṇavā mataḥ/
 nānārūpadharāḥ kaulā vicaranti mahitale/
 [Kaulas, assuming various guises, roam the world—they are Śāktas inwardly, Śaivas outwardly and regarded as Vaiṣṇavas in an assembly.]
- 14. cf. kaulastu pañcamāśramaḥ Niruttaratantra quoted in the Prānatosinī.
- 15. cf. rātrau kulakriyām kuryāt divā kuryācca vaidikīm/
 [At night, one should practise Kula rite, by day Vedic rite.]
 Niruttara-tantra, quoted in the Prānatoṣinī, p. 599.
 na divāyām kulācārah Vāmakeśvara-tantra quoted in Ibid.

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 It should be noted that the Mahānirvāņa condemns the secret performance of such rites. Vide

tasmāt prakāśataḥ kuryāt kaulikaḥ kulasādhanam//
kuladharmasya guptyarthaṃ nānṛtaṃ syāj jugupsitam/
yaduktam kulatantresu na sastam prabale kalau//

iv. 79.80.

[So, Kaulikas should openly perform Kula rite. For the secrecy of Kuladharma, there should be no falsehood which is hated. What is stated in Kulatantras is not commendable while Kali is powerful.]

- 17. Kauladharmāt paro nāsti.
- 18. kulācaraņa-pūtātmā sākṣāt śivamayo bhavet/ On the persons fit to be Kaulas, see Guru-tantra, Saṃśaya-nirāsa, pp. 18-19.
- 19. cf. Kalau viśesato devi ardracarah phalapradah!

IX. Bengal Tantra: Philosophy and Theology

Of the published Tantras of Bengal, containing philosophical ideas, the following are noteworthy:

Śrītattva-cintāmaņi of Pūrņānanda,

Mahānirvāna-tantra.

Pranatoșini of Rămatoșana.

The Tantrasāra and other works dwell on the common places of Tantra, and deal in detail with the ritualistic aspect. It should, however, be noted that the very ideas of Kulakundalini, the dormant power in human beings, and the mystic Cakras within the body are philosophical. These occur in many of the works.

Of the four main branches of philosophy, viz. metaphysics, epistemology, ethics and eschatology, Bengal Tantra deals, to some extent, with metaphysics and ethics. Eschatological ideas are incidentally found in them. So far as epistemology is concerned, we find no discussion as such. But, as we have seen above, jnāna (knowledge) has been divided into two kinds—that derived from scriptures and that arising from discrimination. The means of attaining the highest form of knowledge is Tantric sādhanā. The means of valid knowledge, which has been discussed at length in the orthodox schools of philosophy, does not appear to have engaged the attention of the writers on Tantra.

Pūrṇānanda begins with a discussion about the nature of ātman, or Parama Brahman, who is immanent, but is neither gross nor subtle; he is eternally pure, enlightened and free, beyond the three qualities which lead to the states of wakefulness, sleep and deep slumber. He is formless, devoid of origin, middle and end, and is changeless. His parts are called jīva which, under the influence of avidyā (nescience), assumes different bodies and enjoys happiness and suffers pain. Avidyā covers the jīvātman by the force of āvaraṇa, and keeps it off by the force of vikṣepa. Avidyā is non-material, but by reflection in Ātman, it appears to be like something material. It is like the reflection of a thing in a clear mirror.

That, which is consciousness reflected in the constituent Sattvaguṇa of Avidyā, which is the cause, is called Iśvara as there is firm adhyāsa as 'That am I'. Having the attribute of Sattva-guṇa he is ominiscient, omnipotent and the doer of all deeds.





When that, which appears as consciousness, is reflected in the qualities of Rajas and Tamas, the effects of Māyā, the cause, owing to the influence of action, is shorn of its fullness, and becomes subject to the limitations of space, time and substance, gets the distinctions of sajātīya (of equal type) vijātīya (of a different type) and svagata (own form). Then it has the false notions 'I', 'mine', and is called jīva. Having the attribute of effect it has dullness by which it thinks — I am the doer, I am the enjoyer, I am happy, I am sorry, I do not know myself.

Isvara, due to the differences of attributes of three qualities, assumes the forms of Brahman, Viṣṇu, Rudra, etc; under the force of avaraṇa and vikṣepa belonging to avidyā, creates, preserves and destroys the ninefold saṃsāra from Brahman to grass.

The author poses the question—how is it that Paramātman, who is indifferent, eternal, pure, free, enlightened, beyond guṇas, devoid of ego, desire, jealousy, efforts, etc., comes under the influence of āvaraṇa and vikṣepa? The author solves the problem thus. The above twofold effect of avidyā has no real existence. But, it is wrongly perceived to exist due to lack of discrimination on the part of one who does not know the Ātman. When a man dreams a dream, it appears to be true to him. A man, witnessing magic, for the time being thinks it to be true. The dream having gone and the influence of the magician having ceased, the falsity of the things seen is realised. Similarly, a man, before the rise of knowledge, thinks avidyā and its effects to be true. But when the falsity is realised, avidyā and its effects disappear.

Purnananda states that salvation (mukti), according to some, consists in the absence of infinite misery. According to others, it means the destruction of hankering (tṛṣṇā-nāśa). His own opinion is that it means the merger of the individual soul in Paramatman, the mass of deep bliss.

Salvation is attained not by self-mortification, sacrifice, observance of various practices, study of scriptures, but by knowledge alone (jñānameva hi kāraṇam). Jñāna is twofold—arising out of discrimination and arising from scriptures. Knowledge of Śabda-brahman arises from scriptures and that of Parama-brahman from discrimination. According to learned persons, Śabda-brahman is sound which is inaudible (avyakta) and rises from Para Bindu when it is split (bhidyamāna). According to others, Śabda-brahman is Sabdārtha¹ (meaning of words). The author rejects both the views, because both identify Śabda-brahman with something unconscious or insentient (jaḍa). He avers that it is



the consciousness of all beings. According to him, it, assuming the form of *Kundali* within the human body, manifests itself as *varnas* or letters which appear in the forms of prose, poem, etc. In other words, it is the sole producer of energy in every creature.

As regards Parama-brahman, the author says that some² look upon it as non-dual while others³ have a dualistic outlook. From the manner of his references to these views it appears that the author looks upon it as beyond dualism and non-dualism.⁴

The author holds that nirmama (nothing is mine) and mama (mine) are the two ideas which lead respectively to emancipation and bondage. That action, which causes bondage, is called avidyā while that which does not do so it vidyā. Bondage lasts so long as desire (saṃkalpa) exists, and freedom arises as soon as that desire ceases. The actions of japa, homa, pūjā, tīrtha-darśana, veda-śāstrādhyayana, etc., are resorted to so long as the knowledge of reality is not acquired. So, one, desiring emancipation, should make all-out effort to acquire true knowledge.

True knowledge is this. Parama-brahman, which is eternal and of the form of Rasa, becomes manifest and non-manifest by Prakṛti. So, through Prakṛti, one should directly perceive the Supreme Being. Without the quality of a ghaṭa, it cannot be perceived as a ghaṭa although it is different from other objects. So, without Śakti, Puruṣa cannot be perceived. In other words, Śakti is inseparable from Puruṣa; the latter is the substratum of the former. Every object of the phenomenal world has Prakṛti or Śakti underlying it. Prakṛti absorbs in her all that is manifest. There are diverse means of knowing Brahman, but these help in the indirect knowledge of it. Thus the outward means, the evolutions of Prakṛti, help the realisation of Brahman mediately. The perceptible phenomena thus help in the realisation of the Brahman which is ordinarily imperceptible. That Prakṛti or Śakti can be known through diksā (initiation).

The Prāṇatoṣiṇī cites several authorities in connexion with the order of creation. The following order emerges. From Parameśvara, who is full (sakala) and consists in existence (sat), consciousness (cit) and bliss (ānanda), arose Śakti. Then appeared nāda which gave rise to bindu. Saccidānanda implies that avidyā does not impair the real nature of Iśvara. Sakala indicates Iśvara with Prakṛti. Śiva is twofold—nirguṇa (attributeless) and saguṇa (possessed of attributes). In the latter form, he is connected with Prakṛti. The question arises—how is it that





Śakti arose from one who was possessed of Śakti? The reply is that eternal Śakti remained in a subtle form in the Great Dissolution. Then, due to the disparity of guṇas, she became manifest. Though eternal, she is said to be produced (utpanna) when she appears for accomplishing the work of gods. It is said that Parā Śakti is identfied with Śiva through this desire. At the time of creation, she emerges like oil from sesamum. According to another opinion, the first principle was bindu whence arose nāda which gave rise to Śakti. From three bindus and a half arose the serpent-power Kulakuṇḍalī. Bindu is threefold—Śivamaya, Śaktimaya, Ubhayamaya. Śakti is threefold—jñānaśakti, icchāśakti and kriyāśakti.

From the union of Siva and Sakti was born the first son called Brahman, Mother gave Brahman Sakti called Mohini. The second son was Visnu who protects the entire world having resorted to Sakti given to him by Śiva's consort. The third son was Sadāśiva who was given Sakti called Bhuvanamohini. The consorts of Brahman, Visnu and Siva respectively create, preserve and destroy. The males are absolutely incapable of any work without Prakrti. Lord (Viśveśa or Viśvātman) has been stated to be one and one alone (eka eva). He is the one real principle free from dichotomy (advaita), higher than the highest (parāt parah), self-luminous, (sva-prakāśa), always full (sadā pūrna) and saccidananda (existent, conscious and blissful). He, the formless and changeless one, devoid of attributes and gunas, is eternal and immanent, being the soul of all. He is not perceived by speech and mind. He is omniscient, but none knows Him. The three worlds are upheld by him. All gods, headed by Indra, are under his control. They rule at his command. Siva says that from Him emanated the above three who respectively create, preserve and destroy. To Parvati Siva says that She is the Supreme Prakrti of the Supreme Lord. The principles beginning with Mahat and ending with five bhūtas are creations of Prakrti, Brahman having been only the nimitta. Prakrti is said to assume different forms through illusion (maya).

As regards Śabda-brahman, the views of the author are similar to those of Pūrnānanda. The same remark applies to the twofold Brahman — Śabda-brahman and Parama-brahman. The author devotes considerable space to a discussion of the threefold Śabda, viz. nitya, anitya and prasiddha.

Śiva-is twofold—nirguna and saguna, the former being unconnected with Prakṛti. Śiva and Jīva are thus distinguished. Śiva is free



from any cover (kańcuka) while Jīva has a cover which is fivefold, viz. avidyā, rāga, kāla, māyā, niyati. According to the Kulārņava, quoted in the work, jīva is restrained by eight fetters (pāśa) which are ghṛṇā, lajjā, bhaya, śoka, jugupsā, kula, śila, jāti. Sadāśiva is free from these fetters. Thus, jīva is Śiva only with the difference that the former is fettered while the latter is unfettered. On authority the author mentions 50 forms each of Viṣṇu, Śiva and Śakti.

As regards the order of creation, the author states the views of different authorities, especially the Sāṃkhya theory.

Mukti is attained by those who concentrate on those which are beyond guṇas. Jiva can attain Sivahood by knowledge which is imparted by Tantra alone and not by any other scripture, not even by Veda. Tantra yields knowledge of the Supreme Being. According to the author, jivannukti (salvation in life) is possible. The body is indispensable for salvation. As fragrance is in flowers, as fire is in wood so ātman is in the body.

In the matter of salvation, Tantra considers the body as indispensable. This sharply distinguishes it from the six schools of Indian philosophy none of which shares the view. Like Vedānta and Sāmkhya, Tantra believes in jīvanamukti or salvation in life. The idea of jīvanmukti implies that the preservation of the body is necessary; the Tantra argues—if the body does not exist, how can the fruits of jīvanmukti be enjoyed?

Of ethical principles, we have a lot in Bengal Tantra. These are evident in the qualities and merits required in a guru and a sisya, which have been described in connexion with the contents of the different works. Rigorous self-discipline and various qualities of head and heart are indispensable for a person to be a guru in the truest sense of the term. To his disciple he is Siva incarnate. He has the capacity for leading his disciple along the right path to salvation. A true Sisya will also have to acquire certain qualities to make himself fit for dikṣā. Disrespect and speaking ill of the guru is not only a great hindrance to the achievement of the goal, it also reduces the longevity of the disciple. Among other factors, causing loss of longevity, are acceptance of gifts from a person averse to the duties of his caste and stage of life, lust for other men's wives, covetuousness for wealth, negligence of the study of scriptures, lack of self-restraint.

Time is fleeting; it is the destroyer of all. So, one should not while away time in lethargy, inaction and self-indulgence. One should be fearless where fear exists, and should always be alive to duties.

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A man, desiring salvation, should avoid associations, and devote himself to true knowledge; he should be peaceful. Association leads to many sins. If association has to be made, one should keep the company of the virtuous and cultivate the power of correct judgement. Such an association will chasten his mind, and he will be able to discern a thing in its true perspective. Thus, he will come to realise the evanescence of the relation of the soul with his own body, the hollowness of the association of friends and relatives. In this way, with worldly attachments gone, he will not be subjected to worldly bondage and will enjoy the calm and tranquility through renunciation.

Worldly objects are a source of infinite misery. A person who realises this truth renounces the world, and becomes a recluse. Then he does his duties with an indifference towards the fruits of action. In such a state, he can overcome all passions which are a source of suffering and bondage.

Everyone in the world has to satisfy some passions. One, who does so without losing control over the senses, deserves honour. But, he, who indulges in the gratification of his senses, without the power of discrimination, is a beast who is sure to be subjected to infernal tortures in the end.

Some people look upon the enjoyment of worldly pleasures as the only pursuit in life. They are subjected to repeated births and deaths. Other people think that the mere performance of the duties of their caste and order is enough for realising the Supreme Brahman. Yet, others believe that self-mortification by rigorous austerities will lead them to the goal. But, none of the above can lead to the highest end of human life. True knowledge alone is necessary, and all efforts should be directed towards that end.

Ethical principles are elaborately laid down in connexion with the various Tantric $\bar{a}c\bar{a}ras$ which have been dealt with elsewhere in this book. It should be noted that the Tantra writers were fully alive to the difference in the mental make-ups of different persons. So, they prescribed different modes of discipline for people of different mental powers and attitudes, as will be evident from an account of the different $\bar{a}c\bar{a}ras$.

To say that Tantra encourages lasciviousness by allowing people to indulge in their natural instincts is to miss the true spirit of Tantra. In fact, self-restraint characterises the Täntric prescriptions which allow a man to satisfy his instinctive urges no doubt, but always seeks to curb excesses or overindulgence.



A noteworthy feature of Bengal Tantra, as of Tantra in general, is that it lays greater stress on mental purification than on the external means of a purificatory nature. Mental $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ has been extolled as superior to physical worship. The salient features of mental worship are contained in the following quotations from the Mahānirvāṇa (v):

hrtpadmam āsanam dadyāt sahasrāra-cyutāmrtaih/ pādyam caranayor dadyān-manasārghyam nivedayet/ tenāmrtenācamanam snānivam apo kalpayet/ ākāša-tattvam vasanam gandham tu gandha-tattvakami cittam prakalpayet puspam dhūpam prānān prakalpayet/ tejastattvam ca dipārthe naivedyam ca sudhāmbudhim! anāhata-dhvanim ghantām vāyutattvam ca cāmaram! nrtyam indriya-karmāni cāñcalyam manasas tathā/ puspam nänävidham dadyad ätmano bhavasiddhayel amāyam anahamkāram arāgam amadam tathā amohakam adambham ca advesā-ksobhake tathāl amātsaryam alobham ça dasapuspam prakirtitam! ahimsam paramam puspam puspam indriya nigrahaml dayā-ksamā-jñānapuspam pañcapuspam tatah paraml sudhambudhim mamsasailam bharjitam minaparvatam! mudrārāsim subhaktam ca ghrtāktam pāyasam tathāl kulāmrtam ca tat puspam pithaksālana-vāri cal kāmakrodhau tu vikrtau balim dattvā japam caretl

Processes of mental japa and mental homa (jñānahoma) have also been described in other works on Tantra quoted in Bengal Tantra. Silent japa has been stated to be far more effective than loud japa. Tantra appears to prohibit all sorts of ostentation and pomp in religious performances; austerity is ordained, but not at the expense of physical health. A kaula has been asked to practise kulācāra in the solitude of night. The mūlamantra should be concealed from others like the paramour of one's mother (mātrjāravat).

Respect for women characterises the conduct of a Tāntrika, particularly of one who practises kulācāra. They are to be looked upon as embodiments of goddesses. Kumāris or virgin girls of certain age limits are to be honoured on special occasions for the acquisition of merit.

The Mahānirvāṇa (iv. 100 ff) condemns the enjoyment of public women, and holds that one, indulging in this vice, incurs sin and loses





the fitness of performing religious duties. The son, born of such a union, is called Känina, and is excluded from all religious rites.

The Tantra further holds (iv. 73 ff) that, in the Kali Age, there is laxity of all religious principles; only truth will remain so that all efforts should be made to uphold truth. Truth, indeed, is Supreme Brahman; it is the greatest austerity; nothing is higher than truth (satyāt parataram nahi). Pūjā, japa and tapas, bereft of truth, are futile like seeds sown in a barren field. This work does not favour the idea of performing Tāntric rites in secret; in its opinion, truth suffers from concealment, no concealment is possible without untruth.9

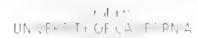
So far as theology is concerned, Bengal Tantra, like Tantras in general, recognises two primeval principles, Siva and Sakti, corresponding, to a great extent, to Puruṣa and Prakṛti of Sāṃkhya.¹º Siva and Sakti are regarded as the forms assumed by the Supreme God. This Sakti has been called Ādyā Sakti, Ādi Vidyā, Tripurasundarī, etc. The Supremacy of Sakti is conveyed by the conception that she stays upon Siva who willingly lays Himself down under her feet. She is an object of meditation to gods Indra and others and is adored by Brahmā himself.

They are but different forms of the Supreme Being. The Supreme Being has been said to have assumed the form of Viṣṇu out of compassion for those who like to adore Him in that form.

The goddesses Durgā, etc., of the Brahmanical pantheon have been conceived as manifestations of this Śakti. As stated in the Chapter on Kālī, she has been represented in this form. Of Kālī again, various forms have been recognised. Bengal Tantra recognises Brahmā, Viṣṇu, Maheśvara as the gods respectively of Creation, Preservation and Destruction. The general attitude is that no deity of the pantheon is denied. Thus, we find Gaṇeśa, Sarasvatī, etc., in the Tantras of Bengal. Kālī, however, is the most prominent figure among the various divine beings.

It should be noted that, though regarding Sakti as the all-powerful Energy of Siva, Bengal Tantra accords an honoured place to Viṣṇu and Kṛṣṇa also. We have already seen that Viṣṇu has been spoken of as an emanation of the Supreme Being, meant for the preservation of what was created. The Tantrasāra gives mantras in honour of the various aspects of Viṣṇu, e.g. Dadhivāmana, Varāha, Nṛṣiṃha, Harihara, Hayagrīva and Rāma. We find mantras also in honour of Kṛṣṇa, Bālagopāla and Vāsudeva. In connexion with Kṛṣṇa, we find the





mention of Nanda, Yaśodā, Devakī, Vanamālin, go-cāraņa. A Kṛṣṇa-mantra, recited for a lac of times, is stated to be conducive to all success. ¹² Such well-known exploits of Kṛṣṇa as Rāsa-līlā, Viśvarūpa-dhāraṇa, Pūtanā-vadha, Kāliya damana, destruction of the city of demon Bāṇa, Govardhana-dhāraṇa, various activities in Vṛṇdāvana and Dvārakā, stealing of Kalpadruma, etc., are mentioned. Different results are said to accrue from the meditation on Kṛṣṇa in his various forms and engaged in various exploits.

On the authority of the *Prapañca-sāra*, the *Prāṇatoṣiṇi* lays down the fifty aspects of Viṣṇu and his fifty Śaktis (powers). It also states the glory (māhātmya) of the different names of Viṣṇu. We find in it also a Śatanāma-stotra of Kṛṣṇa. The recitation of the hundred names of Kṛṣṇa is regarded as highly conducive to merit among the pious Vaiṣṇavas.

The Mahanirvana, however, does not mention Krsna.

The importance, given by Kṛṣṇānanda to Kṛṣṇa, is not difficult to explain. Having flourished either contemporaneously with Caitanya or a little later than him, Kṛṣṇānanda could not naturally escape the tremendous influence of the Vaiṣṇavism as preached by the great religious reformer. Caitanya's preachings centred round Kṛṣṇa.

It is rather curious that Pūrṇānanda, in his voluminous Śrītattva-cintāmaṇi, does not deal with Kṛṣṇa. He appears to have flourished a little later than Caitanya. Nevertheless, Caitanyaism flooded the religious soil of Bengal for a long time to come. May be that having been a Kāli-sādhaka, who attained Siddhi, he thought it fit to dwell on the glorification of Śakti alone to the exclusion of other deities revered in his times.

As we have said elsewhere, the profound influence of Vaiṣṇavism on Bengal Tantra is evidenced by the compilation of the Rādhā-tantra and the inclusion of Vaiṣṇavācāra among the seven Tāntric Ācāras. In connexion with the Prāṇatoṣiṇi, we have noticed the substitutes for the conventional pañcatattvas of Tantra, for the Vaiṣṇavas.

It deserves notice that the formlessness of God is recognised. But such a god is beyond the ken of the people in general, because he is avān-manasa-gocara (not comprenhesible by speech and mind). Such a divinity is either incomprehensible (agamya) or yogi-nirgamya (comprehensible to Yogins). The meditation on such a divinity has been termed arūpa in the Mahānirvāṇa (ch. V). So, for the benefit of the lay people, different forms of the divine being have been conceived. The



meditation on such a divinity has been termed in the above work as svarūpa. Forms have been fancied in accordance with the quality and action of Devi.

The mother-goddesses (mātṛkās) are prominent in Tantra. They are Gaurī, Padmā, Śacī, Medhā, Sāvitrī, Vijayā, Jayā, Devasenā, Svadhā, Svāhā, Śānti, Puṣṭi, Dhṛti, Kṣamā, Ātmadevatā, Kuladevatā.

Of considerable importance among the lesser divinities are the Yoginis. In the Śritattva-cintāmaņi, we find that these divinities are classed as follows:

A. Prakaja—ten. These are Aņimā, Laghimā, Mahimā, Iśitva, Vaśitva, Prākamya, Siddhi, Icchāsiddhi, Prāpti-siddhi, Sarvakāma-Siddhi. It is noteworthy that these include the eight conventional Siddhis.

B. Gupta—sixteen, viz. Kāmākarşaņa-rūpā, Buddhyākarşaņa-rūpiņī, Ahamkārākarşaņī, Śabdākarşaņa-rūpiņī, Sparšākarşaņa-rūpā, Rūpākarşaņa-rūpiņī, Smṛtyākarşaņa-rūpā, Nāmākarşaņa-rūpiņī, Ātmākarşaņa-rūpiņī, Āmṛtākarṣiņī, Śarīrākarṣiņī.

The text of the Śritattva-cintāmaņi appears to be defective, as it enumerates only eleven Gupta-yoginis. The other five are stated in the Jnānārņava (Paṭala xvi) as follows: Rasākarṣakārī, Gandhākarṣaṇa-kāriṇī, Cittākarṣiṇikā, Dhairyākarṣiṇikā, Bījākarṣiṇikā.

C. Kulakaulika—ten. Six of them grant respectively sarvasiddhi, sarva-sampat, sarva-priya (objects), sarva-mangala, sarva-kāma, sarva-saubhāgya. One relieves all kinds of sorrow, another destroys all obstacles. One averts death. One is Sarvānga-sundari.

D. Nigarbha—ten, viz. Sarvajāā, Sarva-śakti, Sarvaiśvaryapradāyinī, Sarvajāānamayī, Sarva-vyādhi-vināśinī, Sarvādhāra-svarūpā, Sarva-pāpa-harā, Sarvānanda-mayī, Sarvarakṣā-svarūpiņī, Sarvepsitaphala-pradā.

E. Rahasya—eight, viz. Vaśinī, Kāmeśvarī, Modinī, Vimalā, Aruņā, Jayinī, Sarveśvarī, Kaulinī.

Bengal Tantra recognises some lesser Śaktis supposed to reside in the body. These are Dākinī, Rākiṇi, Lākinī, Kākinī, Śākinī, Hākinī. On their positions within the human body, we have the following stanzas in the Śrītattva-cintāmaṇi and the Śāktānanda-taraṅgiṇī:

dvipatradala-madhyasthā ḍākinī rākiņī caiva śākinī hākinī caiva ṣṛṣṭi-sthiti-vināśā ca lalāṭa-tala-vāsinī/ lākinī kākinī tathā// ṣāṭcakra-vinivāsinī/ ṣṛṣṭi-sthity-antakāriṇī//

Śritattvacintāmaņi, xxv. 66.

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visuddhau dākinī devī anāhate tu rākiņī/
lākinī maṇipurasthā kākinī liṅgagocare//
ādhāre sākinī devi ājñāyaṃ hākinī tathā//
sākinī brahmarandhrasthā sarva-kāma-phala-pradā//
Śāktānanda-taraṅeinī.

Each of the above is supposed to have a distinct form.

A noteworthy deity is Mafijughoşa (lit. one whose voice is pleasant). Under this the lexicon, Śabdakalpadruma, quoting the Trikānḍa-śeṣa, notes pūrvajinabhedaḥ. Jina refers to the Buddha. It seems that the Buddha was, though indirectly, recognised as a deity in Bengal Tantra. A mantra, in honour of Mafijughoṣa, as found in the Tantrasāra, is as follows:

jādyaugha-timira-dhvaṃsī saṃsārāraṇava-tārakaḥ/
śrī-mañjughoṣo jayatāṃ sādhakānāṃ sukhāvahaḥ//
His dhyāna is given as follows:
śaśadharmiva śubhraṃ khaḍga-pustāṅga-pāṇim/
suruciram ati-śāntaṃ pañcacūḍaṃ kumāram/
pṛthutara-vara-mukhyaṃ padmapatrā-yatākṣam/
kumati-dahana-dakṣaṃ mañjughoṣaṃ namāmi//

Khadga may be symbolic of the enlightenment of the Buddha, with which he destroyed the darkness of ignorance. Pusta may refer to his immense learning. Atisānta, Kumāra and Kumati-dahana-dakṣa suit the Buddha admirably. It appears to be significant that puraścaraṇa relating to Mañjughoṣa-mantra consists of only four aṅgas instead of the usual five; brāhmaṇa-bhojana is prohibited¹³ presumably because of the animosity between the Brahmanical religion and Buddhism. The Gandharva-tantra (Paṭala I), quoted in the Prāṇatoṣinī, describes the Buddha as an incarnation of Viṣṇu.¹⁴

The Śritattva-cintāmaņi (xviii. 356-58) enjoins the worship of not only the Buddha, but also of Buddhist philosophy. The word jineśa¹⁵ occurs as an epithet of Viṣṇu in the Śrītattva-cintāmaṇi (xviii. 401). Does it mean the Buddha? If so, he has perhaps been regarded as an incarnation of Viṣṇu.

It is nothing surprising to find provision of the worship of the Buddha in Hindu Tantra. This is because the Buddha has long been admitted as one of the ten avatāras.

NOTES

- 1. This is the view of Sphotavadins.
- 2. viz. Māyāvādins.
- 3. viz. Naiyāyikas, etc.
- 4. cf. Kulārņava-tantra mama tattvam na jānanti dvaitā-dvaitavivarjitam/
- 5. cf. pañca-kleśa of Sāṃkhya philosophy—avidyā-asmitā-rāga-dveṣa-abhiniveśaḥ/
- 6. The Mahānirvāņa also says—brahma-jāāna-yuto martyo jīvanmukto na saṃsayaḥ (iv. 2.1.).
- 7. cf. śriya etāh striyo nāma satkāryā bhūtimicchatāl
 [These women are indeed goddesses of fortune; they should be honoured by one who wishes prosperity.]

Mahābhārata, Cr. ed., Anu., 46/14.

yatra nāryastu pūjayante ramante tatra devatāḥ— Manusmṛti. [Gods are pleased where women are honoured.]

- 8. On kumārī-pūjā, see under purascaraņa in Chap. V.
- 9. gopanād hīyate satyam na guptir anrtam vinā.
- On the relation of Tantra and Sāmkhya, see this topic discussed earlier.
- 11. cf. tvam kālī tāriņī durgā sodasī bhuvanesvarī/
 dhūmāvatī tvam vagalā bhairavī chinnamastakā/
 tvam annapūrņā vägdevī tvam devī kamalālayā/
 sarva-sakti-svarūpā tvam sarva-devamayī tanuḥ//

Mahanirvana, iv. 13-14.

- 12. cf. laksaika-japanād asya kim na siddhyati bhūtale!
- 13. See p. 4 of the Purascarana-ratnakara.
- 14. cf. daityānām nāśanārthāya viṣṇunā buddha-rūpiṇā/bauddha-śāstram tathā proktam, etc.
- 15. The alternative reading is *dinesa* (sun) which does not seem to yield a happy sense.

X. Popular Beliefs and Mystic Practices

Magic has been a part of folk-life perhaps ever since the dawn of civilisation. Some of the magical ideas may have been obtained from earlier aborigines. Sorcery, witchcraft, etc., have a long history in all countries. India is no exception in this respect. The earliest recorded magical rites are found in the *Atharva Veda*. The more primitive a people the more widespread is the belief in such rites and practices. Even today, in the rural life of India, we find a section of people practising these rites as a family vocation. Various tribes preserve such mystic rites with zeal.

The Tantras are a rich store-house of such magical and mystical beliefs and practices. So far as Bengal is concerned, we shall confine ourselves only to the *Tantrasāra* of Kṛṣṇānanda and the *Prāṇatoṣiṇī* of Rāmatoṣana. We shall briefly describe such rites and practices, dealt with in these two works, so that the reader may have an idea of the real popular belief reflected therein. In doing so, we shall not repeat those which have already been referred to while describing the contents of the above two compilations.

Magic is twofold, white and black. The former is designed to secure good health, prosperity and other kinds of material well-being. The latter is calculated to cause harm to hostile people, bring others under control, etc.

Bengal Tantra deals with the magic of both the above kinds.

White magic, according to the authors of Bengal, consists in the rites to ensure the following:

- (i) Victory in disputes. The plants go-jihvā or śikhimūlā, collected in Puṣyā nakṣatra and held in the mouth or on head, ensure victory. In the month of Agrahāyaṇa, śikhimūlā should be gathered on the Full Moon day and held in the arm, head, the tuft of hair on head—this leads to victory. In the fourteenth night of the dark half, the root (?) of Mahānīlī should be gathered from a burning ground and tied round the hand—this ensures victory in disputes. The mantra is Om sudarśanāya hūṃ phaṭ svāhā.
- (ii) Counteracting the menace of theft. Under Puṣyā nakṣatra, in the bright half, one should collect the root of the guñjā plant which should be tied on the head.
- (iii) Cure of diseases. One should drink ghee measuring one pala with an incantation.





- (iv) Removal of thirst. One should rub red sandal with water, mix it with a tolā of water, recite a mantra over it for 108 times and drink it saying tṛṣṇāṃ nāśaya. In a week the thirst of such a person will disappear.
- (v) Prevention of hunger. The following alternative processes are prescribed:
- (a) Kṛṣṇacitrā measuring half a tolā or half or one-fourth of it should be mixed with ghee and made into pills. Then, uttering Kāmabīja mantra and saying kṣunnāśini nivāraya svāhā, these should be taken.
- (b) First, one should have a meal of havişya, then perform mātrkājapa and take ghee with a mantra.
- (c) With the tongue one should stir ghee so that the lips are smeared with it, then rub the tongue so as to make it lick the lips.
- (d) Every day one should drink Vijayādhūma, purified by a mantra through brahma-randhra.
- (vi) Prevention of urination. One should collect $Asvagandh\bar{a}$, consecrate it with a mantra, mix a $tol\bar{a}$ of it with ghee and drink it. At the root of the penis, he should recite $k\bar{a}mab\bar{i}ja$ and mentally effect stagnation. Mix 32 $tol\bar{a}s$ of milk with two $tol\bar{a}s$ of marica and heat the mixture till it is dried up. Then after reciting a mantra, it should be eaten.
- (vii) Prevention of motion. Make a mixture of the following: 2 tolās of Vidanga, 1 tolā of Pippali, 3 tolās of Sunthi and the juice exuded from Tejapatra. The mixture should be made with a mantra recited for 108 times. Then, after reciting a mantra, it should be taken.
- (viii) Prevention of semen-flow. The root of *Erandaka* is to be crushed and applied to the root of the navel. The bile of *Rohita* fish should also be rubbed over the place. A mantra is, of course, to be recited.
- (ix) Removal of laziness. After making *Hum* sound and producing a sound with palms, one should take the crushed root of *Vetāla*. With the *Phaṭ mantra* the root of *Tāla* is to be taken. Then one should take honey.
- (x) Prevention of sleep. Mix Śvetadhūpa with half a tolā of Katutaila. After uttering a mantra for 108 times, one should apply the mixture on both eyes daily. A mantra is to be recited in between the eyes and the family preceptor and the family deity are to be meditated upon.



- (xi) Freedom from all diseases. Described in connexion with the contents of the *Prāṇatoṣiṇī*.
- (xii) Reviving the life of a dead person. This consists in recitation of Mṛtyuñjaya-mantra, invocation and worship of Tṛyambaka (Śiva).

In white magic are included the various Siddhis or powers. Certain sādhanas are prescribed for acquiring these Siddhis. Some such Siddhis are the powers by which one can understand the significance of the cries of various beasts, birds, aquatic creatures, etc. As a specimen, we state below Kṛkalāsa-siddhi or the power of understanding the meaning of the cries of a kṛkalāsa (chameleon).

One should go alone, with a mind free from fear, to a cremation ground at dead of night on the third lunar mansion of Kārtika and Phālguna. There he should sit and meditate upon goddess Carcikā who is described as having a white throat, a fierce voice, terrible eyes. She is young, two-armed, has shanks long as a palm tree, her hairs are dishevelled. Then he should recite a mantra for a thousand times with great concentration. Thus he attains this siddhi by which he can quickly bring under control a king and a woman.

One of the siddhis is Khecara-siddhi by which one can fly like a bird (Śrītattva-cintāmaņi, xxii. 140-42).

Black magic is of the following kinds:

(i) Mārana—killing. First of all, cinders of Khadira wood have to be collected, particularly on Kujāstami day (i.e. in Astami tithi failing on Tuesday). Then, on an iron plate, the likeness of the enemy has to be drawn. At dead of night, the letters of the mantra concerned are to be written in order in the following spots of the picture: head, eyes, forehead, heart, hands, navel, anus, hip, back, two feet. After this, one should form samhāra-mudrā (hand-posture for destruction) and meditate upon the goddess who gives victory. The goddess, to be meditated upon, is tall, dark, with head turned upward, holding a pair of human heads in hand, naked. Next brick-powder is to be given to the goddess saying Satrunāsakaryai namah. Then, this powder should be mixed with pulverised turmeric and the mixture given before the goddess amukasya sonitam piba piba māmsam khādaya khādaya hrīm namah — after worshipping the goddess this mantra is to be recited at noon and midnight for 108 times. On the eleventh day, the enemy will surely be attacked with a disease. He will die after one danda following the 21st day.



Other methods for *māraṇa* are also prescribed. First of all, the head of a cat, killed for the purpose, is to be obtained. Colouring its tongue with vermilion, one should write on it the name of the intended person. Then one should recite the name of Kālī 10,000 times.

Śmaśānakālī is to be invoked and worshipped with cloth accompanied by iron ornaments. Then one should recite the *mantra* facing south in order to achieve the object.

Having cooked rice, one should offer it to creatures in a lonely spot, and put it into a pit at midnight in the enemy's house. If this is done, the enemy will die within a week.

Having worshipped the great goddess with pañca-tattva, one should purify own wine with the seeds of kūrca. Then, having pleased the fierce Bhairavī with it, one should drink it uttering the name of the enemy. One should also sprinkle it in all directions in a Mahāpīṭha. Then one should walk there in a naked state.

One should write the name of the person concerned on an earthen vessel. Putting own urine into small containers one should throw them there. Then one should recite Māyābija for 108 times. By pleasing Bhairavī thus one can cause insanity and even the death of the person intended.

According to the Śrītattva-cintāmaṇi, one should face southward, write the name of the enemy with mahānīra-rasa (?) in a cakra which is to be burnt in fire. Thus, an enemy can be killed.

(ii) Utsādana (destruction). The dung of a bull is to be collected with the mantra mahādevyai namah. It is to be worshipped with warm water. On an iron vessel, the picture of the enemy is to be drawn with Khadira cinders. Then Siva is to be mentally placed on it, and with a concentrated mind one should meditate upon Maharudra, who is to be conceived as staying like fire ablaze on the chest of the enemy seizing his hair with the left hand and drawing his vital breath with the right, surrounded by big fierce animals, holding the Pināka bow. After invoking the deity one should bathe him with the mantra Śūlapānaye namah, and worship him with water for washing feet, etc., uttering the mantra Maheśvarāya namah. The mantra Namah śivāya is to be recited 21 times. Hum ksamasva — with this mantra visarjana is to be done with the left hand. The following mantra is to be recited once—aiita kesava visno hare satya janārdana hamsa nārāyana svāhā. Also to be recited is Hum namo bhagavate vāsudevāya svāhā. On the eleventh day the enemy will be destroyed.



- (iii) Stambhana (rendering motionless or causing paralysis). A pot is to be obtained from a potter. In it one should put dry lotus-stalks and leaves. Then the pot, resting on ashes, should be placed, along with a shallow dish (sarāva) on it, on an iron rod planted into a hole dug to the north-east of the house on a Saturday just at noon when no one else is there.
- (iv) Vasikaraṇa (bringing under control). The process, according to the Tantrasāra, has been described under that work. We briefly describe the processes stated in the Prāṇatoṣiṇī.

The image of the object is to made with a pala or half a pala of silver. Haritala and half a pala of powdered turmeric should be thrown into a pit 1.5 cubits deep. Placing a red seat therein, one should enter into it and have flags planted all around. Facing eastward and placing a pitcher, filled with sesamum, one should commence Japa. Then, after worshipping deities, including Camunda, with certain mantras, one should name the object and pray for bringing him under control. Japa should be done from morning till midday. Then homa is to be performed with Jāti flowers. Feeding of Brāhmanas is a part of the rite. A paste, made of the crushed roots of white Aparājitā plant and rocanā (a yellow pigment), should be consecrated with a mantra recited hundredfold and used as tilaka (a mark on the forehead). Gold of such a quantity as is permitted by the financial condition of the person concerned should be offered as sacrificial fee. The rite should be preceded and followed by elaborate pūjās. After five days, a king can be brought under control.

Pūrṇānanda gives certain novel methods. Some of these are stated below briefly. With *mahānīlī* and *rocanā*, mixed with milk, alkaline substance, one should write the name of the person concerned, hold it in his person uttering a *mantra*. Or, the name so written should be kept in water with which he should bathe and which he should drink.

One, facing northward, should write the name of the intended person with vermilion powder and worship it properly.

One should draw a Cakra with rocanās, and throw it into milk.

One part of *rocanā* and one part of *kuṃkuma* are to be mixed with sandal-paste. The mixture should be used as *tilaka*. Then a *mantra* is to be recited 108 times.

Any one of the following substances, duly consecrated with mantra recited 108 times, should be given to the intended person: betel-leaf, incense, flowers, fruit, curd, milk, ghee, cloth, camphor, musk, clove, etc.

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One should write on a birch-leaf with *rocanā*, *aguru*, and *kuṃkuma*, the name of the city, country or any other intended region. It should be worshipped properly and put underground. Thus, the entire region can be brought under control.

In order to bring a woman under control, one should take betelleaves, with her name in mind, sitting on the bed in a lonely house where none else is present. Or, having recited a mantra for 108 times, one should drink water with the name of the woman intended.

One can win the hearts of all women, by the following method: one should face westward, write with sandal-paste the name of the intended woman and worship the goddess duly.

(v) Vidveṣaṇa (causing enmity). Some methods for this have been laid down among the contents of the Tantrasāra. We state below the method as found in the Prānatosinī.

On a bhūrjapatra (birch-leaf) the figures of a crow and an owl are to be written with the juice of Karavīra or Dhustūra. Then, writing the names of the persons concerned, along with a mantra, one should wish as follows—let there be enmity between those two persons like that existing between these two birds. The mantra in question should be recited 5,000 times. The worship of Mahākālī is propitious in this connexion.

With a mantra one should write the name of the person concerned with cow's urine mixed with the fluid extracted from the excretion of buffaloes and horses. Then it is to be thrown into Palāśa flowers.

(vi) Uccāṭana (expulsion). According to Pūrṇānanda, painting the wing of a droṇakāka (a kind of crow) in the middle with rocanā (a pigment), it should be hung in the air. According to the Tantrasāra, the name of the person concerned should be written on a neem leaf with the excretion of buffaloes and horses. The pen will be made of a crow's wing. The mantra is—kākatuṇḍi dhavalāmukhī amukam uccāṭaya uccāṭaya hrīṃ phaṭ. Fire should be brought from the cremation ground and fed with the wood of Dhustūra. Human oil or other oil should be poured into it. In this rite, goddess Dhavalāmukhī is to be worshipped. After this the ashes are to be thrown on the enemy's house.

Another method is this. On a particular day a human bone measuring four angulas is to be collected. On it the name of the enemy is to be written at the end of night. Then the bone should be thrown into the principal residential house of the enemy.



(vii) Mahāhāni-karaṇa (causing great mischief). Facing westward one should worship a black Cakra uttering the name of the intended person.

It should be noted that rites are prescribed also for counteracting the effects of hostile magic. These consist in japa, and propitiation of goddess Annapūrņā with various dainty dishes, etc.

Śānti, Vasīkaraņa, Stambhana, Vidveṣaṇa, Uccāṭana and Māraṇa — these six together are called Ṣaṭkarma in the Tantrasāra.

NOTE

1. Enumerated in connexion with the contents of the Pranatosini.



XI. Tantra Vis-a-Vis Bengali Cultural Life

Bengal may not have been the birth-place of Tantra, as is supposed by a section of scholars. Nevertheless, the fact remains that the soil of this region was very favourable for the growth and spread of Tantrism. Tantric practices permeated the society of Bengal. The religious rites of this province were deeply hued with Tantra. The worship of Kall, in accordance with the prescriptions of Tantra, became popular not only among the upper classes, but also among the common folk. Tantric rites to ward off evil, ensure welfare and cause harm to enemies were widely practised. As we have seen above, Sanskrit scholars of Bengal wrote treatises on Tantra.

In short, people thought of Tantra, dreamt of Tantra, talked Tantra, wrote Tantra, sang Tantra, and adopted Tantra for religious purposes.

The Sanskrit works of Bengal, particularly the works of the followers of Bengal Vaiṣṇavism, show widespread influence of Tantras. Besides the ritualistic works on Bengal Vaiṣṇavism, their great devotional, philosophical, theological and literary works are replete with references to, and quotations from, various Tantras, especially the Vaiṣṇava Tantras. Of the works revealing Tāntric influence, mention may be made of the Bhakti-rasāmṛtasindhu, Ujjvalanılamaṇi and Saṃkṣepabhāgavatāmṛta of Rūpa Gosvāmin, the Ṣaṭ-sandarbha and Gopāla-campū of Jīva Gosvāmin.²

Some of the Purāṇas and parts of others are supposed to have been composed or compiled in Bengal. Among these works, some reveal profound Tāntric influence. Such Purāṇic works are: the Devī purāṇa, Bṛhaddharma, Mahābhāgavata, Devībhāgavata, and the Kālikā-purāṇa. The Devī-purāṇa mentions several Tantras like Kālatantra, Mūlatantra, Bhūta-tantra, etc. It prescribes Tāntric mantra, nyāsa, mudrā, etc. Meat and wine also are prescribed in certain cases. Like Tantra, it speaks highly of Kumārī-pūjā. It also mentions magic spells like Kāmikā, Aparājitā and Mṛtyuñjaya. In the worship of the goddess, it accords a higher place to even a qualified Śūdra than one of a higher caste devoid of merit. According to it, the woman has an exalted position; it even provides for the worship of women. It allows even the people of such low classes as Caṇḍāla, Pukkasa, etc., to worship the goddess.

Like Tantra, the *Bṛhaddharma-purāṇa* seeks to determine the proper guru. It describes, inter alia, the image of Kālī, and provides for



her worship to the accompaniment of Mālsī (i. 23) songs; these songs are devotional and suffused with Tāntric ideas. It also contains (iii. 16. 37-45) an eulogy of Kālī. One of the appellations of this Purāṇa is Śāktaśāstra. The Mahābhāgavata deals, inter alia, with the ten Mahāvidyās, the creation of Chāyā Kālī, the origin of 51 Mahāpīṭhas. It is clearly a Śākta work. In it, Kālī is Supreme Brahman and Parā Prakṛti. Puruṣa of threefold quality is created by her. The urge of Puruṣa for creation is due to the impetus provided by the goddess. This work appears to syncretise Vedic religion with the Tāntric. The Devībhāgavata is a Śākta work. According to it, the goddess is the highest Divinity, and is the Śakti of all other gods.

The Kälikä-puräna describes $K\bar{a}li-p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ in detail, and provides for the sacrifice of not only animals but also of men in her honour.

The Vidvan-moda-tarangini, a Campū by Ciranjīva, a Bengali author of the seventeenth-eighteenth century, deals with the Śākta as a prominent cult. The Sadukti-karnāmṛta of Srīdharadāsa, an anthology of verses dating back to the thirteenth century A.D., contains several verses describing Kālī in her various forms and activities. Of the authors of such verses, Umāpatidhara is definitely a Bengali. Bhāsoka, author of another verse, is supposed by some scholars to have been a Bengali. The authors of the remaining two stanzas, quoted anonymously, may also have been Bengali. As the anthology originated in Bengal, it is but natural that Kālī should figure prominently among the gods with whom verses are associated.

In Bengali literature, the influence of Tantra is varied and widespread. As we shall see, even scholars, educated in western methods, were deeply influenced by Tantric ideas. The Caryāpada, also called Caryāgīti, Caryācarya-viniścaya, Bauddha Gān o Dohā, which is believed to have been composed about 1000 A.D., contains much that betrays its indebtedness to the Buddhist Sahajiyā cult. In certain portions of the work, the firm faith of the author concerned in nihilism is reflected. Even its language resembles the sandhā (or sandhyā) bhāṣā of Tantra. In many cases, religious principles, influenced by Tantra, particularly the Nātha cult, have been mainly drawn upon by Bengali authors. In the Nātha literature, some noted Bengali works are Māṇikcandra rājār Gān, Mayanāmatir Gān, Gopīcandrer Gīt, Gorakṣavijaya, etc. In the well-known Śrīkṛṣṇa-kīrtana, which is pre-Caitanya according to some and post-Caitanya according to others, and is attributed to Vaḍu Caṇḍīdāsa, there is indication of the Tāntric mode

of Sadhana.4 Google UN JERO IT JE CALIFORN -

In the Bengli Rāmāyaṇa of Kṛttivāsa, we find that, goddess Ambikā, whose help is sought by Rāvaṇa in distress, is Kālī or Śyāmā who figures prominently in Tantra. In the same work, the goddess, awakened and worshipped by Rāma out of season, is no other than Kālī. Kṛttivāsa writes about the effect of the hymn, recited by Rāvaṇa, in honour of Ambikā—

asitavaraņā kāli kole dasānan.

After the goddess concealed one of the blue lotuses, with which Rāma wished to worship Devî in autumn,

Hanumān says —

hena lay cite

tomāre herite

pankaj harilā kāli//

[To my mind it seems that, to test you Kālī took away the lotus.]

The Meghanādavadha (canto V) of Madhusūdana, Dasamahāvidyā of Hemacandra, the Kapālakuṇḍalā of Baṅkima, Mā Nā Mahāsakti of Kālīprasanna Ghosh, the poems Śavasādhana, Nācuk tāhāte śyāmā by Navīnacandra and Vivekānanda bear eloquent testimony to Tāntric thought. The Dasa-mahāvidyā of Vijayakṛṣṇa, the great devotee of Mother Goddess, is another instance in point. Poet Surendranāth Majumdar appears to have been influenced by the two Tāntric principles of Śiva-Śakti as well as by Puruṣa and Prakṛti of Sāṃkhya philosophy. He says in his poem entitled Mahilā:

samsāre ye dike cāi, kari vilokan

viparit dui bhāv melā;

hara-gaurī-rūp viśve puruṣ-prakṛti!

[Wherever I cast my eyes, I find that two opposite attitudes are manifest. In the world, there are Hara and Gauri, Purusa and Prakṛti.]

In his conception of Sarada, as the Universal Energy, in his Sarada-mangal and Sadher Asan, poet Viharīlai shows his indebtedness to Tantric ideas. He writes —

kabhu varābhay kare,

cande yena sudha kşare —

karen madhur svare abhay pradan,

dipta sürya hutäsan dhvak dhvak du-nayan

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kabhu äluthälu kese smasaner prantadese jyotsnäy ächen vasi...

[Sometimes she grants boon and freedom from fear with her hand as though the moon exudes ambrosia. She gives freedom from fear with a sweet voice. Her two eyes shine like the blazing sun and fire. At times, she sits with dishevelled hair in moonlight on the outskirts of the cremation ground].

The poet was imbued with the idea of the complete form of the goddess as described in Purāṇa and Tantra. At several places, he characterises her as yogeśvarī.

Vihārīlāl appears to be affiliated to the Śrīvidyā-kula. The Latāsādhana or Yoginī-sādhana of Tantra have culminated in premayoga in his writings. The idea of prema may have come from the Vaiṣṇava Sahajiyā cult. The blissful state, acquired by a devotee from the realisation of Śiva-Śakti, is referred to in the following lines of his Sādher Āsan:

tomāre hṛdaye rākhi,
sadāi ānande thāki,
āmār prāņe pūrņa candroday, sārā divā rajanī.
Satyadev Ghosh, a scholar-devotee, writes —
āy mā sādhan-samare
dekhvo, mā hāre ki putra hāre!
ārohaņ kariye kālī-sādhana rathe,
tap jap duṭā aśva yute tāte,
diye jñān-dhanuke ṭān, bhakti-brahma-bāṇ
vasechi dhare6//

[Come, Mother, to the battle of Sādhana. I shall see whether the mother or son is vanquished. Having climbed the chariot of Kālīsādhana, yoked to it the two horses in the form of tapasyā (penance) and japa (repetition of mantras), and drawn the bow of knowledge, I have sat down holding the arrow of devotion and Brahma.]

The main idea of Satyadeva is to transform the individual consciousness to Sakti-consciousness which again is to be realised as Mother consciousness. She is at once the giver of energy and the dispenser of well-being.

In recent times, Yatındranath Sen Gupta has composed a poem, called *Bhikharini* in his poetical work, entitled *Triyama*; the theme of the poem is the hunger-stricken goddess Kalı.



Ravindranāth sometimes betrays a penchant for an outlook on life, which resembles the Tantric view; the resemblance might, of course, be accidental. For example, we may quote the following lines:

vairagyasadhane mukti se amar nay — mine is not salvation through renunciation.

indriyer dvār ruddha kari yogāsan, se nahe āmār — mine is not the yogic posture shutting the doors of the senses.

It is a clear denial of the ascetic ideal of the orthodox Brahmanical religion. The same lust for sensuous enjoyment finds expression in such lines as $s\bar{u}nya\ vyom\ apariam\bar{u}n$, madya-sama $kariva\ p\bar{u}n$ — I shall drink like wine the limitless sky that is void.

The Candimangala works clearly reveal the influence of Tantra, e.g. the work of Mukundarāma (late 16th cent.), Dvija Mādhava (late 16th century). Works on Manasāmangala, e.g. one by Ketakādās Kṣemānanda (17th cent.), Ṣaṣṭhī and Śitalā mangalas, etc. also contain Tantric ideas.

Bhāratcandra's Annandā-maṅgala⁷ has been deeply influenced by Tantra. His Vidyāsundara⁸ also amply shows its indebtedness to Tantra.

The Kālikā-mangalas, composed by various authors, are clearly influenced by the Śākta cult. Dvija Rādhākānta has characterised his Kālikā-mangala as Śyāmār sangīt (song in honour of Śyāmā, i.e. Kālī). The class of literature, known as Corer Pāncālī, in old Bengali, deals with goddess Kālī as the divinity of bandits and thieves. The Tantrasāra states that such a goddess, who originated in a Tāntric mileu, used to be worshipped with Tāntric rites.

Quite a number of works chiefly in prose, relating to Sahajiyā cult, arose about the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Their very titles, Deha-kaḍcā, Ātma-jijñāsā, etc., hint at their contents. The Vaiṣṇava Sahajiyā cult obviously bears the deep impress of Tantra. Its philosophy of love is basically Tāntric. The dualism of Śiva-Śakti of Tantra finds a parallel in the dichotomy of Rasa and Rati in the Sahaja in the form of Mahābhāva. Rasa and Rati correspond to Kṛṣṇa and Rādhā respectively. Tāntric Sādhana assumes energy in the woman and realises it. Again, it assumes and realises Śivahood in man. Likewise, the fundamental thing in the Mahābhāva-sādhana of Sahajiyā is the realisation of sva-rūpa (own real form) in the rūpa. The svarūpa of woman is Rādhā, and that of the male is Kṛṣṇa. Mahābhāva arises out of the union of the pair established in Svarūpa. The Nātha literature of Bengal



shows that the Natha cult, which appears to have originated in Bengal, is deeply indebted to Tantra.

A large number of devotional songs, relating to Sakta cult, bespeak Tantric influence and have enriched Bengali literature. Among the writers of such songs, the most famous is Rāmprasād⁸ who was at once a poet and a devotee. He was a follower of the Kaula way of Tantra. Kālī, a form of Śakti, was his object of meditation. That he was a Sādhaka is proved even today by the pañcamundi-sādhanā-sana at the place called Siver gali at Halisahar, a suburb of Calcutta. His religious outlook appears to have been influenced by the monistic doctrine of Vedānta philosophy. He appears to have looked upon Kālī as one Brahmamay! Sakti behind all the diversities of the universe. The poetical work, called Kavirañjana, attributed to Rāmprasād, is said to have been a part of his Kālikā-mangal which is lost. Rājā Krsnacandra of Nadīyā was a composer of such devotional songs. His two sons, Sivchandra and Sambhuchandra and some other members of the family, notably Narachandra, Śriśchandra and Nareśchandra, have also left some songs for us. A few songs of such devotional strain are marked with the bhanita of Maharaj Nandakumar, The writers of such devotional songs can be broadly divided into two groups—one of Nadīyā and the other belonging to Burdwan. Some songs were written by Dewän Raghunāth Roy of Burdwan. Mahārāj Mahātabchānd of Burdwan was himself a composer of considerable merit. Of the Burdwan group, and indeed among all such song-makers, a very prominent figure was Kamalākānta Bhattāchārva.

These devotional songs, particularly those of Rāmprasād, have a charm peculiar to themselves. Their devotional fervour gives rise to rapturous delight in the mind of the devotee and contain immense emotional possibilities. Rāmprasād exquisitely portrays the Mātr-bhāva (motherhood) of the goddess, and gives a delicate expression to the Vātsalya-bhāva of the devotee whose childlike appeal to the mother stirs the soul. It should be noted that the sentiment of tender devotion, called up by Rāmprasād, is in contrast to the terrible aspect of Mother as found in king Suratha's worship of Ādyā Śakti in the Devimāhātmya.

It should be noted that the Tantrikas and Vaisnavas of Bengal exercised mutual influence, that of the latter on the former being more marked. A few writers even attempted a fusion of the two with a view to removing conventional intersectarian animosities. The Vaisnava



poet, Candidasa, used Tantric imagery and referred to the Tantric idea of Satcakra-sādhana.9 In his Kālī-kīrtan and Krsna-kirtan, Rāmprasād reveals his deep indebtedness to Vaisnava ideas. He imitates not only the style and imagery of Vaisnava poems, but also attributes to the goddess the characteristics of Kṛṣṇa as revealed in his Vṛṇdāvana-lilā. Thus, he depicts the gostha, ras, and milan of Bhagavati. The placing of the flute and cows' goad (pācanbādi) and the imagery of a female, grazing cows, have exposed him to sarcastic comments, 10 no doubt, Yet, here, as in Agamani songs, the adaptation of the popular Vaisnavite ideas was not without a purpose; it was not merely an effusive outburst. Apart from the fact that, in the highest form of devotion, the devotee loses all distinctions of names and objects, there were Rāmprasād's solicitations for bringing about rapprochement between the two warring sects. A typical example of this attempt of doing away with all distinctions between Visnu and Sakti, Krsna and Kālī is furnished by the following quotations:

prasād bhaņe abhedjāāne kālarūpe mešāmeši/ ore eke pāāc pāācei ek man karo nā dveṣā-dveṣi// kāli hali mā rāsvihāri naṭavar-veše vṛndāvane/

[Prasād says—thinking of non-difference, there is intimate mixing with black form. O man, in one there are five, in five indeed is the one. O mind, do not indulge in hatred. Mother Kālī, thou hast become Rāsvihārī (i.e. Kṛṣṇa) in the guise of the master-dancer at Vṛndāvana.]

Rămprasād identifies Kālī with not only Kṛṣṇa; according to him, she is the one principle which is manifested in the forms of different deities. He sings —

ai ye kāli kṛṣṇa sivrām-sakal āmār elokesi/

[That Käli of mine, with dishevelled hair, is all, viz. Kṛṣṇa, Śiva Rāma.]

A few specimens of devotional songs, betraying Tantric ideas, are given below:

kālībrahma jene marma dharma karma sav chedechi/ şaṭcakra-rathmadhye syāmā mā mor virāj kare/ tinṭi kāchi kāchākachi bāndhā āche mūlādhāre// hṛtkamalmañce dole karālvadanī syāmā



idā pingalā nāmā suṣmṇā manoramā tār madhye gānthā syāmā brahma sanātanī O mā.

[Having known the quintessence that Kālī is Brahman, I have given up all dharma (religious practices) and karma (action). My mother Syāmā, resides in the six-wheeled chariot. Three strong ropes, near one another, are tied in Mūlādhāra (see Glossary). The fierce-faced Syāmā swings in the heart-platform. (The Nāḍis), named Iḍā, Pingalā and the pleasing Suṣumna; into these is stuck the eternal Syāmā who is Brahman, O Mother.]

--- Rāmprasād

tumi cit-abhimukhī kāryahetu cit-vimukhī cidānande piche rākhi cittānande unmādinī/ tyajya kara nirvikāre mahat hate ahaṃkāre sṛṣṭi kara savikāre vikār rūpiṇī//

[You are turned towards consciousness, for the sake of work, turned against consciousness. Keeping the joy of consciousness behind you are mad in the joy of mind. Give up Nirvikāra (the changeless) from Mahat to Ahankāra; O (Mother) with the form of change, create, what has change.]

--- Rasik Ray

syāmā mā ki āmār kāla re
ore syāmā mā ki āmār kālo/
loke vale kālī kālo —
āmār man to māne nā kālo—
kālorūpe digambarī hṛdipadma kare ālo/

[Is my mother Syāmā black; O, is my mother Syāmā black? People say that Kālī is black, but my mind does not admit blackness. The naked one, with her black form, illumines the heart-lotus.]

— Kamalākānta

tirthe gaman duḥkha-bhraman, man ucāṭan hayo nāre tumi ānanda-triveṇīr snāne, sītal hao nā mūlādhāre//11

[Visiting a holy place is painful travel; O mind, don't be restive. Why do you not be cool by bath in the *Triveṇi* of bliss in *Mūlādhāra* (see Glossary)? Note: *Triveṇi* is the name of the confluence of rivers Gaṅgā, Yamunā and Sarasvatī at the holy place called Prayāga (in Allahabad). The author appears to hint punningly at the terminal point of the three Nāḍis, Iḍā, Pingalā and Suṣumnā at Mūlādhāra.]

- Kamalākānta

Attempts at syncretism are found also in the following:



jāna nā re man param kāraņ syāmā kabhu meye nayl se...kakhan kakhan puruş hayll kabhu bāndhe dhaḍā kabhu bāndhe cūḍā... haye elokesī kare laye asi... vrajapure āsi vājāiyā vānsī...

[O mind, you know not that Syāmā, the Supreme Cause, is never a woman. She sometimes becomes a man, (and) sometimes ties a dhaḍā (strip of coth fastened round the lions) and sometimes cūḍa (diadem). Having dishevelled hair and holding a sword in hand, coming to Vrajapura (Vṛndāvana) and playing on the flute....]

- Kamalākānta

In some works of the *Pāricālī* class also, we find the same tendency. In Dāśarathi Rāya's *Pāricālī*, we have the following:

kunjakānane kāli, tyaje vānsi vanamāli, syām syāmā bhed kena karare jīv bhrānta// bhuvan bhūlāli go bhuvanmohini/ mūlādhāre mahotpale viņāvādya-vinodini// sarīre sārīri yantre suṣumṇādi traya-tantre guṇabhede mahāmantre tinagrāma-sancāriṇi// ādhāre bhairavākār ṣaḍdale śrirāg ār māṇipurete mallār vasante hṛt-prakāśini// viśuddha hillolasvare karṇāṭik ājnāpure/ tāl mān lay sure trisapta surabhedini//

[Vanamālī (Kṛṣṇa), giving up the flute, is Kālī in the bower forest. O confused creature, why do you discriminate between Śyāma and Śyāmā? O Goddess, taking delight in playing the lute in the great lotus of Mūlādhāra (see Glossary), O enchanter of the world, you have charmed the world. You are moving in the three villages, with the great mantra which is different in accordance with the difference of qualities, in the three strings of Suṣumṇā in the body-machine. You are of the form of Bhairāva (rāga) in Mūlādhāra, in the ṣaṭdala (six Cakras) Śrīrāga, Mallāra (rāga), in Maṇipura (see Glossary) and the revealer of heart in Vasanta (rāga). In Hillola note in the Viśuddha (Cakra) and in the Karṇāta (rāga) in the Ājñācakra you distinguish between thrice seven (i.e. 21) melodies in tāla (beating time), māna (measure), laya (time) and sura (melody).]

-- Nandakumar

Kālī Mirjā (Kalidas Chatterji), well known for his tappās and syāmā-samgita, follows the tradition of Rāmprasād with a considerable



degree of success. The following lines are quoted from one of his songs:

āre man tui maje yāre kālīpada-sudhārase caturvarga phal pāvi mukta havi bhava-pāse!

[O mind, plunge into the ambrosia of Kālī's feet. (Thus) you will get the result of the four ends of life (and) be liberated from the snare of existences (or, rebirths.)]

A class of versifiers and singers in Bengal was known as Kaviwālās. The Kavi-songs began to be composed as early as the eighteenth century or even a little earlier. But, the period of its luxuriant growth extended between 1760 and 1830 A.D. One of the several topics of Kavi-songs was Mālsi which means songs on Rādhā-Kṛṣṇa and other deities. Vaiṣṇava influence on the Kaviwālās was predominant. But, they also wrote on Śākta and Tāntric themes. Lālu Nandalāl, a well-known Kaviwālā, composed songs on the common theme of the identity of Kṛṣṇa and Kālī. About the glory of Devī, Raghunāth Dās sings—

tomār apār lile,

āvār suni sitā uddhārite, abhay diye akālete,

lankāpure raghunāthe, āpani saday hole!/

[Your sport is endless. Again, I hear, to rescue Sītā, granting freedom from fear out of season to Raghunātha (i.e. Rāma) in Lankā, you yourself became kind.]

Anthony Phiringi, another famous Kaviwālā, sings — mā rāvaņ rājā antimkāle raghunāther raṇasthale durgā vale dekechila vadane, tavu tār pāne phire cāili ne, tār duhkha bhāvli ne.

[O Mother, King Rāvaṇa, at the final hour, in the battlefield of Raghunātha, called (Thee) as Durgā with his mouth. Yet, Thou didst not look back at him, didst not think of his misery.]

Nīlmaņi sings —

mā harārādhyā tārā,

tomār nām, mokṣadhām, tantre sunte pāi/

tumi tārā, tvam trigunadhārā

tārā go mā keval gangājal añjali kare mānase naivedya kare.

diva mā tor caran dhare, nirmal gangājal/ .

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[O Mother Tara, adorable to Siva, I hear in Tantra that your name is the abode of salvation. You are Tara in whom flows the stream of three qualities. O Mother Tara, with only a handful of Ganga-water and making Naivedya (eatables offered to a deity) of the mind, I shall holding your feet, offer the clear water of the Ganga.]

There are many Bengali patriotic songs composed by different persons. These began to be composed about the middle of the nineteenth century when the spirit of nationalism inspired many a Bengali patriot. In these songs, the native country is looked upon as mother (deśa-māṭṛkā) and Śakti (Energy). These are clearly influenced by the Śakta cult. In some of them, the influence of Tantra, particularly of Kālī as conceived in Tantra, is discernible. Bankim Chatterji (1838-1894 A.D.) was, perhaps, the first noted Bengali litterateur who sang such a patriotic song. His famous Vande Māṭaram song enthralled countless people, and provides inspiration even today. D.L. Roy was the next great figure who eulogised Deśa-māṭṛkā. We quote below a few songs which bear clear evidence of Tāntric inspiration.

cala samare diva jīvan ḍhāli jay mā bhārat, jay mā kālī/

Rāṇā Pratāp — D. L. Roy

[Let's go, we shall lay down our lives in battle.

Victory to Mother India, victory to mother Kālī.]

smašāņ to bhālavāsis mā go, tave kena chede geli? eta vada smašān e jagate kothāy peli?

Asvini Kumar Datta

[Here the author is extremely pained at the miserable condition of the country groaning in thraldom of the foreign rulers. He looks upon Kālī as the Presiding Deity of the country. It means — Mother, you love the cremation ground. Then, why have you deserted it? Where have you got such a huge cremation ground in the world?]

jägo go, jägo jananil tui nä jagile syämä keha jägive nä mä, tui nä näcäle käro näcive nä dhamanil

Mukunda Das



[Mother, wake up, wake up. O Śyāmā, unless you awake, none will awake. Unless you make people dance, the vein of none will pulsate.]

The popular folk songs, called $B\bar{a}\bar{u}l^3$ $g\bar{a}n$, bear the indelible imprint of Tantric ideas of the $Sahajiy\bar{a}$ type. A few $B\bar{a}\bar{u}l$ songs, containing Tantric ideas, are quoted below:

1. gurur hāter pradīp laiyā
dekhare aṭhāi guhāy vaiyā
ātmayoge sacet haiyā
tave param maram pāvi/
(dekhvi) saras daras hṛdmājhāre
(āvār) apār caudda bhuvan-pāre/
yogalīlā tor sahasrāre
ātmā-nātma bhed ghucāvi.

[Taking the lamp of the preceptor's hand (and) sitting in the fathomless cave, look. Being conscious of self-yoga, you will get the greatest secret. (You will have) the sight of the delightful (one) in the midst of the heart (again) at the end of the boundless fourteen worlds. your Yoga-sport in Sahasrāra (see Glossary); you will put an end to the discrimination between the soul and non-soul.]

(Attributed to Adyanatha)

 ye āche ṣaḍdale, tāre lao ulṭā kale, yadi se yāy dvidale uṭhve jvale vātil

[Take him, who is in the six-petalled (Cakra, i.e. Svādhiṣṭhāna-Glossary), in the reverse machine. If he goes to the two-petalled one, then the lamp will start burning.]

3. mṛṇāl hāoyār gati, triguṇ-dhāriṇī śakti yathāy vasatī tāre jāgāle yoganidrā, sādhyadhan vādhya hay!

[If the movement of the breeze of the lotus-stalk, where resides Śakti, possessed of three qualities, be awakened, then Yoga-nidra (see Glossary) (takes place and) the accomplishment of the desired object comes under control.]

(Attributed to Haude Gosain)

4. sata kimvā sahasra dal rasa-rati kare calācal dvidalete sthiti vidyut-ākṛti ṣaḍdale se to ṣaṭtattva hay, dasam dale mṛṇāl — gati gaṅgā vay tira-dhārā tār śriguņ vicār lālan vale guru anusār/

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[Hundred or thousand petals—the delight of charm makes movement. (Its) stay is in the two-petalled one in the form of lightning; in the six-petalled ($Sv\bar{a}dhisth\bar{a}na\ Cakra$) it becomes the sixfold principle. In the ten-petalled ($Manipura\ cakra$ —see Glossary), the Gangā of the movement of lotus-stalk flows. Its flow, along the bank, is the consideration of Srlguna (the three qualities of Sakti?). So says Lālan according to his preceptor.]

5. tūi tāre dharivi keman kare

jāne cakrabhedī sikṣā yārā dharle dharte pāre tārā/āge caturdale dhar ge goḍā ṣaḍdale lāgva joḍā rasik havi torā/[How shalt thou catch him?

Those, also possess the knowledge of the penetration of *Cakras*, may catch if they like. At first, go and catch hold of the root in the four-petalled (*Cakra*, i.e. *Mūlādhāra*—see Glossary); (then) there will be union (or joining) in the six-petalled (*Cakra*, i.e. *Svādhiṣṭhāna*) (and) you will be possessed of delight.]

6. dvidale triveņi-mahātīrthadhāme śaśānkaśekhar gaurī laye vāme nirakhi nayane sei rādhāśyāme ānandasalile bhāse anukṣaṇ//

[In the two-petalled great holy place of *Triveṇi* (i.e. *Iḍā*, *Pingalā*, *Suṣumṇā*), the moon-crested (Śiva), with Gaurī on his left, seeing that (couple of) Rādhā and Śyāma, floats in the water of joy at every moment.]

7. mūlādhāre caturdal padma-pare sāpinī nidrita chila natasire doleri golete jāgiyā sihari uccamukhe preme kare nirīkṣaṇ//

[On the four-petalled lotus in the Mūlādhara, the female serpent was asleep with its head bent low. In the tumult of swing, having awakened being horripilated looks on in love with its upturned face.]

8. nā jene gharer khavar tākāo kene āsmāne cānd rayeche cānder kole īsān koņe prathame cānd uday dakṣiṇe



suklapakse āse neme vāme āvār dekha kṛṣṇapakṣe kirūpe yäy dakṣiṇe/

khuñjile āpan gharkhānā, tumi pāve sakal thikānā.

[Without knowing the news of the house why do you look at the sky? The moon is in the lap of the moon in the north-east corner. At first, the moon rises in the south; it descends to the left in the bright fortnight. Again, see how it goes to the right in the dark fortnight.]

If you search your own house, you will get all whereabouts.]
(Lālan Phakir)

9. suşumnā dhariye mṛṇāl vāhiye, uṭha sei padma' pare

rūpāśray kari, cal adhaḥ chāḍi — rūp dhare cal maṇipure/

[Holding the $Susumn\bar{a}$ and proceeding along the lotus-stalk, get upon that lotus.

Resorting to form, proceed leaving the bottom. Assuming form go to Manipūra (see Glossary).]

10. guru, tumi tantrer tantri, guru, tumi mantrer mantri, guru, tumi yantrer yantri

> āmār janma-andha man-nayan, guru, tumi nitya sacetan, caraņ dekhva āsāy kay lālan, jñān-añjan dāo nayane/

[O preceptor, you are the possessor of *Tantra*; you are the possessor of *Mantra*; you are the possessor of *Yantra* (diagram used in Tantric rites; see illustration v).

My mind's eye is blind since birth. O preceptor, you are ever-conscious. In the hope of seeing the feet, Lālan says — give the collyrium of knowledge in my eye.]

(Lālan)





11. amāvasyāy candra uday, dekhte yār vāsanā hṛday, lālan vale theko sadāy trivenite theko vase!

[To one, whose heart's desire is to see moon-rise in the new moon, Lalan says — always keep on sitting over Triveni (i.e. İḍā, Pingalā, Suṣumṇā).

(Lālan)

12. ṣaḍa cakra pare āche ādi vidhān, tāte pūrṇa rekhe ṣola kalā bhed kare sapta tātā, tār upare kare khelā kālācānd/

[Over the six Cakras is the primeval precept. Keeping it full with sixteen digits (and) penetrating seven storeys, upon that plays Kālācānd.]

(Lalan)

The following are some of the exquisite lines of Nazrul Islam, which echo Tantric sentiments:

- 1. āmār hṛday adhik rānā māgo, rānājavār ceyel [O Mother, my heart is redder than the red Javā (flower).]
- ore sarvanāśi mekhe eli e kon culor chāi, śmaśān chāḍā khelār tor jāygā ki ār nāi?

[O all-destroying lady, you have come besmearing (your body) with the ash of which hearth? Have you got no other playground than the funeral place.]

- 3. kālo meyer pāyer taāy, dekhe yāre ālor nācan! [See the dance of light under the feet of the dark girl.]
- 4. bal re javā bal, kon sādhanāy peli syāmā māyer caran tal/
 [O Javā flower, say, by what penance have you got the soles of the feet of Mother Syāmā?]
- 5. Śmaśāne jāgiche śyāmā, antime santāne nīte kole! [Śyāmā is keeping awake in the funeral place in order to take (her) children into her lap at the end.]

The idea of Cari Candra (lit. four moons, i.e. four states of mind), found in some Baül songs, and the concept of Candrabheda according to some, echo the Tantric conception of mental discipline and Cakrabheda.¹⁴

Tantra as religion influenced the conventional religious practices, rites and customs of the Bengalis. The wide use of mandalas, mudrās,



yantras and the cryptic and mystic syllables in the religious rites of Bengal is a clear proof of the penetration of Tantra into the social and religious life of this province. Durgotsava, the greatest festival of Bengal, is marked by Tāntric practices. The Śabarotsava on the Daśami day of the Pūjā, in which people are required to besmear their bodies with mud and leaves and abuse one another in filthy language, appears to indicate the degeneration of Tāntric practices. Similar indication is found in a provision in the Brhaddharma-purāṇa which is, in all probability, a work of Bengal. Regarding some vulgar words, it provides that these should not be normally uttered before others. But, on the occasion of the autumnal Durgā worship, these should be uttered except in the presence of one's mother, sister and a female disciple not initiated to Śakti-mantra.

Raghunandana, the celebrated social leader of this land, recognised Tantric initiation $(d\bar{u}k\bar{s}\bar{a})$ which has since been regarded as indispensable for full spiritual training.

The Vaisnavas freely adopted Tantric elements in their rites and practices. The Haribhakti-vilāsa, the most authoritative work on their rites and customs, openly acknowledges debt to Tantra, among other works, in his prescriptions. In matters of dīksā, pūjā and certain duties, the author draws upon Tantra as on Smrti, Purana, etc. At several places, he refers to this Śāstra by such general terms as Tantra, Agama, Nigama, Paficaratra, etc., while at others, he specifically mentions such Tantric works as Kramadipikā, Gautamiya Tantra, Trailokyasammohana Tantra, Nārada-pañcarātra, Rudra-yāmala, Visnu-yāmala, Śāradātilaka, Śaivāgama, Hayaśirsa-pañcarātra, etc. Tantric diagrams, circles, spells, mudrās, nyāsa, etc., find prominent places in the work. Twenty types of Tantric mantras have been recognised by the author. He dwells on the Tantric mode of diksā (initiation) besides the Puranic. The Vedic mode was the most ancient one. He also accepts the Tantric mode of bath besides the Vedic. In Vilasa V of the work, he deals mainly with the Tantric method of the daily worship of Gopaladeva. He follows the Gautamiya Tantra for the modes of meditation and worship at the three junctures of the day (trisandhya). The main subject of Vilasa XVII is the Tantric rite Purascarana15 which is an essential prerequisite of mantrasiddhi (successful attainment of mantras). In this, he takes the Kramadipikā as the principal authority. After the manner of Tantra, it prescribes the worship of the sixteen Matrkas before the consecration of images.



The Satkriyā-sāra-dīpikā, another work on Vaiṣṇava rites and customs, also utilises Āgama, Yāmala, etc. The Rudra-yāmala is a prominent Tantra drawn upon by its author. In almost all of the sacraments, dealt with in it, Tāntric mantras have been copiously used.

In Bengal (including the present Bangladesh), there are many centres of Śakti-worship, including some piţhasthānas. Some of these are: Mehar, Kirīţeśvarī, Kankālitata, Tārāpiṭha, Kālīghāṭ, Bhavānīpur, Serpur, etc.

Of the above places, Kālīghāṭ is very well-known, and has a long history. Thousands of devotees throng the temple of Kālī every day, particularly on days regarded as very auspicious for Kālī-worship or for Kālī-darśana. Situated at the south-western fringe of old Calcutta, it is one of the fifty-one pīṭhas. It is said that a toe of the right foot of the dead body of goddess Satī, cut into pieces by Viṣṇu, fell here. Here, the deity is Kālī and Śiva or Bhairava is Nakuliśa, Nakuleśa or Nakuleśvara. It should be noted that this place is not mentioned in any work of ancient times, dealing with holy places. The earliest reference to it, as a renowned holy place, occurs in some Bengali works dating back to 17th-18th centuries, e.g. Kālikāmangala of Kavišekhara, Anādimangala of Rāmdās. The art of Paṭa or pictures, which has been inspired by the temple and the deity, forms a class by itself. Makers of such paṭas, known as Paṭuyās, are widely known among the lovers of art.

The Tantric way of life and the Tantric mode of sadhana were resorted to by certain Bengali families. Generations of members of such families used to cling to this mode as a precious heritage. For a good span of time, the scions of these families enjoyed great reputation and prestige among the people. They were held in high esteem by those who set store by religious practices. One such family is known as Sarvavidyā-vaṃsa. The most prominent Sādhaka in this family was Sarvānanda. 16

Another such family was resident of village Kāṭihālī in Netrakonā subdivision of the Mymensing district of Bangladesh. It is known by the name of Pūrṇānanda Paramahaṃsa Parivrājaka (c. middle of sixteenth century) who is reported to have been a Tāntric sādhaka of a very high order. He composed quite a number of works on Tantra.

Some other families, well-known for Tantric Sadhana, are the descendants of Ardhakali, Bhattacarya family of Medtala, the group of premikas of Andul, etc.



There were some Bengali adherents of Tantra who initiated a number of disciples. They devoted their energy to the study of Tantras and the Tantric mode of sādhanā. The greatest of these figures is Rāmkrishna Paramahaṃsa whose disciples included the famous scholar-preacher, Svāmī Vivekānanda. The most noteworthy feature of Rāmkrishna's religious thought is that he used to look upon Kālī as the Supreme Being. According to him, She is the symbol of unity among the diversities of the phenomenal world. Among those who came into close contact with Rāmkrishna, Girīś' Ghosh was very deeply influenced by Tantra.

It is believed by some that Kesab Sen, founder of Navavidhan Brāhma Samāj, having come into contact with Rāmkrishna, took to the worship of Kali. Other well-known Tantric Sadhakas were Ratnagarbha, popularly known as Gosāin Bhattacharya, Vāmā Khyāpa.¹⁷ Ratnagarbha is said to have been the spiritual preceptor of Cand Ray and Kedar Ray, famous among the Vara Bhuifiyas (Chiefs) of Bengal who flourished towards the end of the sixteenth century. A follower of the Virācāra form, he is stated to have attained Siddhi in the temple of goddess Digambarī at Mayaisar in Dacca district. Vāmācarana, known as Vāmā Khyāpā, was born about the middle of the nineteenth century in a Brahmin family of a village in the district of Birbhum in West Bengal. He attained Siddhi at Tārāpītha, a wellknown centre of Tantric worship, near his native village. It should be noted that a lady, generally known as Ardhakālī,18 attained considerable fame as a follower of the Tantric mode of sadhana. This in brief is the anecdote associated with her. She was daughter of Dvijadeva, a traditional Sanskrit scholar of village Panditbadi (Pargana Alapsing) in Mymensing district of Bangladesh. She was married to Raghava, a pupil of Dvijadeva. After the marriage, the usual pakasparsa (=boubhat) was held at Raghava's house. While the newly married girl was serving food to the guests, a gusty wind blew off her veil. The girl naturally felt uncomfortable. But, both her hands were engaged, and could not be used to set the veil in the proper position. Then, two more hands emerged from her body, and the needful was done. Thenceforward this miraculous girl had been known as Ardhakälī and much venerated by the people. Her family came to be known as Ardhakālivamsa.

In village Kṣīragrām in Burdwan (West Bengal), there is a very ancient Kālī temple. The story goes that goddess Kālī, whose image is



installed there, assumed the form of a girl, introduced herself as daughter of her worshipper and got conch-bangles from a dealer. The place is a holy spot to devotees.

Kudi Mā is known to have been the human incarnation of Kālī in village Tilak on Khulna-Bagerhat railway in Bangladesh.

The sceptic may not place any credence on these anecdotes. Nevertheless, these testify to the Tantric influence among the mass of people; Kali is a Tantric deity.

Among the individual Tantric Sadhakas, we should mention also Satyadev Ghosh and his disciple, the famous Vijaykṛṣṇa.

Our treatment of this topic will remain incomplete without a reference to the world-famous Aurobindo Ghosh. He appears to have been considerably influenced by Tantra. Tantric rites and rituals were not his concern. The philosophy of Tantra, particularly Tantric Sadhana, played a great role in moulding his spiritual life. The quintessence of the Yogic sadhana, taught by him, is founded on Tantra. The main teaching of Tantra is kāya-sādhana, to make the body fit for the abode of God. With it is inextricably bound up the ideal of the fusion of bhava (being) and nirvana (liberation), of bhukti (enjoyment) and mukti (salvation). Ghosh also teaches this ideal; he advocates the complete transformation of one's being for the purpose of divine life. Tantra prescribes the drinking of divine Somarasa. Ghosh holds that the flow of this divine juice pervades the universe as the divine lustre, divine bliss. One has to prepare oneself for receiving it. After getting it, one tastes divine life. Like Tantra, Aurobindo teaches us ādhāra-suddhi which means the purification of the body and the mind. He looks upon Divine Mother as the Supreme Being to whose will one desiring to reach the goal shall surrender oneself completely and unconditionally.

The Smārta rites and customs of Bengal, dating back from medieval times bear the deep imprint of Tantra. We have already referred to Tantric dūkṣā, prescribed by Raghunandana. Here we shall examine the extent to which the Smṛti digests of Bengal were influenced by Tantra. Bhavadeva Bhaṭṭa, the upper limit of whose date is tentatively fixed in the third decade of the eleventh century, and who flourished probably before 1100 A.D., is the earliest Bengali digest-maker whose works have survived. The prominent Smṛti writers of Bengal, preceding the great Raghunandana and following Bhavadeva, are Jīmūtavāhana, Aniruddha, the royal scholar Vallālasena, Halāyudha, Śūlapāṇi, Bṛhaspati Rāyamukuṭa and Śrīnātha Ācāryacūdāmaṇi. Govindānanda



appears to have been a senior contemporary of Raghunandana or preceded him by a short period. It should be noted that the influence of Tantra is more marked on later writers than on the earlier ones. As a matter of fact, no writer before Śūlapāṇi mentions a single Tantra, although traces of Tāntric influence are noticeable in the pre-Śūlapāṇi digests. Only a few works, among the many attributed to Śūlapāṇi, mention Tantra. Tantras have been mentioned by Śrīnātha, Govindānanda and Raghunandana, the last one most profusely.

The cause of Täntric influence on these works is not far to seek. As we have stated elsewhere, Tantra invaded every nook and corner of Bengal society. So, the social leaders could ignore it only at a great peril to orthodox Brahmanical rites and customs. Some scholars are of opinion that Tantra found its way into Smṛti works through the medium of Purāṇas, which constituted one of the authorities in socioreligious matters so that Purāṇic authority could not be accepted without recognising Tantra. This view does not seem to be tenable. It is believed that Tantra had been exercising influence on Purāṇa ever since the end of the eighth century A.D.²¹ In that case, pre-Śūlapāṇi Bengal writers, who flourished in the period between the eleventh century and the fourteenth century, might have easily absorbed Tāntric rites and customs. So, it seems that Tantra influenced Bengal Smṛti not because of Purāṇas, but in spite of them. Social compulsion seems to have been at the root of the recognition of Tantra by the Bengal writers.

The Haratatva-didhiti, by Harakumar Tagore of the famous Tagore family of Bengal, is a work on the various rites, rituals and practices of the Hindus. The author lays down the rules and regulations, and freely quotes the authority of various Tantras, Purāṇas, Smṛti and other ancient works. The work deals, inter alia, with such well-known Tantric topics as Guru, Dīkṣā Sādhana, Sādhaka, Śāktas, Ṣaṭcakra, Nyāsa, Praṇāyāma, Yantra, Piṭhas, Japa, Kāli-pūjā, Puraścaraṇa, Pañca-tattva, Avadhūta, various Ācāras, etc. The work is an index to the profound influence of Tantra on the religious rites. Had it been otherwise, the author would not have taken pains to consult and cite so many Tantras.

It should also be noted that many festivals of Bengal are Tantric in character. Some such festivals date back to the fifteenth or sixteenth century.²²

In an Appendix, we shall state the Tantras mentioned in the various Smrti digests of Bengal.



In the domain of Bengal sculpture, the influence of Tantra is wide-spread. Images of the various forms of Devi are scattered all over Bengal.²³ The image, found at Deulbāḍī in Tippera district, appears to be like the goddess described in the Śāradātilaka-tantra as Bhadradurgā, Bhadrakālī, etc. Ugratārā, worshipped at village Sikarpur in Bakharganj, is a Tāntric deity. Many pieces of stone, with the figures of seven Mātṛkās engraved side by side, have been discovered in various parts of the province. The Mātṛkās are conceived as the energies of gods.

There are countless images of the various forms of Kālī in every nook and corner of Bengal.

Besides Hindu deities, images of Buddhist Devīs also exist in a good number. Mention may be made of Tārā, Vajratārā, Bhṛkuṭitārā, Parṇaśabarī, etc. There are also statues of Heruka, Hevajra, etc.

NOTES

- 1. We shall deal with Tantric influence on such works later on.
- 2. For details, see S.B. Das Gupta, Obscure Religious Cults, etc.
- 3. For the Purāṇas, supposed to have originated in Bangal, see the present writer's work entitled Saṃskṛta Sāhitye Vāṅgālīr Dān, Calcutta.
- 4. For example, iḍāpiṅgalāsusamaṇā sandhi manpavan tāte kaila vandī/
 - [Ida, Pingala and Susumana are united, therein mind-wind was made captive.]
- 5. Author of Sädhan-samar, published in three volumes in Calcutta.
- 6. Vide Śakta-padāvali (Calcutta University).
- 7. See S.K. De, Bengali Literature in the Nineteenth Century, Calcutta, 1962, p. 420.

The following lines of the Annadā-mangala are interesting:

Mṛṇāler tantumadhye sadā āse yāy//

prakrtipurusrūpā tumi sūksma sthūl/

ke jäne tomär tatva tumi visvamül//

[Always it comes and goes through the lotus-fibre. In the form of Prakṛti and Puruṣa you are subtle and gross: who knows the truth about you. You are the root of the world.]

More eloquent testimony to Tantric influence is borne by the following lines:



Kausiki kālike caņdīke ambike prasīda naganandīni/

Canda-vināsini munda-nipātini Sumbha-Nisumbha-ghātini.

[O Kauśiki, Kālikā, Caṇḍikā Ambikā, O daughter of the mountain, O destroyer of Caṇḍa and Muṇḍa, O slayer of Śumbha and Niśumbha, be pleased.]

In the above lines, Kālī has been identified with Durgā.

The following lines from the Kāli-stuti in Vidyāsundara are typically Tantric:

Kali Kali Kalike

Canda-munda-munda-khandi khandamunda-mālike, latta patta dīrgha jatta mukta-kesa-jālike

[O Kali, the beheader of Canda and Munda, wearing a garland of severed heads, with dishevelled long matted locks from which the mass of hair has been let loose.]

In connexion with the boon given by goddess to Sundara, the poet writes:

lolajihvi lak lak bhāle agni dhak dhak

kad kad vikata dasan//

mukh ati suvistār srkkete rakter dhār

Šava-siśu śravaņa kuņḍal/

[The tongue is lolling, fire blazing in the forehead, fierce teeth are making a rattling sound, blood is flowing in the lips. The dead body of a child is very widely used as ear-ring.]

- 8. For an exposition of *Prasādī Saṃgū*, see *Vīrabhūmi*, (new Series), Vol. II.
- 9. kivā kārikarer ājav kārikuri/

tār madhye chay padma rākhiyāche pūri//

sahasrare hay padma sahasrak dal

tār pare maņipur param siver sthal//

[What workmanship of the craftsman! Into it, he has put six lotuses. In Sahasrāra (see Glossary) there is a thousand-petalled lotus. On it is the Manipura (see Glossary), the place of Supreme Siva.]

Lines quoted from Caṇḍīdāsa in Virabhūmī (New Series), ii, p. 15. Which Candīdāsa is meant is not clear.

10. For example, nā jāne tattva kāntāler āmsattva meye haye dhenu ki carāy, etc.



[He does not know the truth (as one who says) amsattva prepared with jackfruit. Note: Amsattva is a preparation of the juice of mangoes dried in the sun.]

- Aju Gosvāmī

11. cf. agādhe vimale suddhe satyatoye dhṛti-hrade!

snātavyam mānase tīrthe sattvam ālambya sāsvatam!

[One should, having resorted to eternal spirit, bathe in the mental holy place which is fathomless, limpid, pure and a lake of fortitude in which truth is the water.]

Mahābhārata, Anusāsana, III 3.

tirtham param kim — svamano visuddham!
[What is the best holy place; one's own pure mind.]

- Vide Prācin kaviwālār Gān, compiled by P.C. Pal, pp. 42-46.
 Kṛttivās calls her Ambikā who is none but Kālī, as stated elsewhere.
- 13. The word is, perhaps, derived from Vātula (mad); some would take it to have been derived from Vyākula (Very eager). The corresponding Hindi word appears to be Vāurā. He is a Bāul who is mad for realising the proximity or favour of God who is full of love and is his maner manus (the man most desired by mind). Baüls form a class by themselves. Though mostly illiterate or uneducated, they are adepts in composing songs. With a singlestringed instrument, they go about singing songs in their own way. They do not observe caste-distinctions. Yet some of them belong to different Hindu sects, e.g. Kartābhajā, Sahajī, Balarāmī, etc. Some of them are Muslims of whom the most famous is Lalan Phakir (1774-1890). He is said to have been a Hindu by faith; but being orphaned in childhood he was brought up by a Muslim family. Their songs are a curious medley of Tantricism of the Sahajiyā type, Sufism and Vaisnavism. On Bātils and their songs, see Tagore, The Religion of Man; Ksitimohan Sen, Bāmlār Bāül and his Lila Lectures.
- 14. See H.C. Paul in *Journal of Asiatic Society of Bangladesh*, XVIII, No. 1.
- 15. It consists of the following five rites: traikālika pūjā (worship of the deity at three junctures of the day), japa, tarpaņa (offer of libations), homa (offering oblations) and brāhmaṇa-bhojana.
- 16. For details, see under 'Tantras of Bengal'.



- 17. For his life, see the Bengali books Vāmā Khyāpā and Śrī Vāmā-līlā by J.N. Chatterji and H.C. Ganguli respectively.
- 18. For her biography, see A.C. Mukherji, *Ardhakālī* (in Bengali) and *Rāghava-dipikā* (in Sanskrit) attributed to Viśvadeva Ācārya.
- On this question, see R.C. Hazra, ABORI, xv, Pts. iii-iv, and IHQ, ix, pp. 678-704.
 Also see the present writer's work, entitled Smrtisastre Vangali, Calcutta, 1368 B.S., Chap. V.
- 20. See R.C. Hazra, Studies in the Puranic Records, etc. p. 262.
- 21. Ibid., p. 250.
- 22. For such festivals and their antiquity, see C. Chakravarti, IHQ, xxvii.
- 23. Vide R.C. Majumdar, Vānglā Dešer Itihās, in three volumes.

XI. Tantra Vis-a-Vis Bengali Cultural Life Supplement

Tantra and Sister Niveditä

In connection with Tantric influence on the life of the people of Bengal, a word must be added about Sister Nivedita (1867-1911). Although a foreigner, yet her relation with the Bengalis was so close that, for all intents and purposes, she was regarded as inseparable from the society of Bengal. While introducing herself, she would write - Sister Nivedita of Ramakrishna and Vivekananda. She was an ardent devotee of Kalī. She has deftly analysed the conception of Kalī in her celebrated work, entitled Kalī, The Mother. Her speech about Kalī, delivered in Calcutta, stirred the soul of the Bengalis, and generated in them a new enthusiasm and devotion to this deity. Many men and women became her disciples.

Tantra and Tagore

Rabindranāth did not support outrageous and barbarous activities perpetrated on the pretext of Tantric rituals. His attitude of protest is clear from his dramatic compostion, entitled Vālmīki-pratibhā and Rājarṣi. That he did not fully endorse the Tāntric conduct is obvious from the following lines written by him:

ye jāti calenā kabhu, tāri patha-pare tantra-mantra-saṃhitār caraṇ nā sare/

'Dui Upamā', 1302 BS.

(The feet of *Tantra*, *Mantra* and *Samhitā* do not move on the path of that nation which never moves forward.)

More about Kali²

At various places in Bengal (West Bengal and Bangladesh taken together), Kālī is worshipped in images³, symbols⁴ or trees.⁵ Besides the Kālī image at Kalighat, Calcutta, there are several other renowned Kālī images in West Bengal. These are

the image at Birsimhapur in Birbhum district, the image of Ambikā or the wooden Siddheśvarī at Ambikā-Kālnā, the image of Mayda Kālī at South 24 Pargaṇās, the image of Bargabhīmā at Tamluk, the image at Hālisahar in North 24 Parganas district.



The popularity of Käli is not confined merely to the Hindu community. Even today, many Muslims, desiring to get over serious difficulties, offer $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ to Käli. Some of them offer even goats which, instead of being sacrifice in the Hindu way, are set free.

It is said that the renowned Kabiwallah, Anthony Firingi, was a devotee of Kali. The song about Bhavani, which he used to sing before starting *Kavigāna*, is as follows:

bhajan pūjan jānine mā, jātete firingi!

yadi dayā kare taro more e bhave mātaṅgl/

(Mother, I do not know how to serve or to worship; by caste I am an Anglo-Indian. O Mātaṅgī, it depends on your mercy to save me in this existence or earth).

In central Calcutta, an established Kālī image is called *Phiringi Kālī*; it is said that the aforesaid Anthony used to worship it.

Kalighat

It is the most well-known place of Käli-worship in Bengal, and is regarded as one of the fifty-one *Plihasthānas*. It is said that the goddess's right toe fell on this spot. Curiously enough, there is no mention of this holy place in any old work. Comparatively late works on places of pilgrimage also are silent about it. The *Tirtha-tattva* of the famous scholar, Raghun-andana (16th cent.), of medieval Bengal does not refer to it. An oft-quoted line is *Kālikā vanadeše ca*. It refers to Kālī as the dominating deity of Bengal, but gives no hint about Kālīghāţ. The Bengali poet, Mukundarām (16th cent.) is, perhaps, the earliest author to mention Kālīghāţ in the following line:

Kālīghāter vandiva pratyakṣa mahābalā

(Candimangala)

It appears to be the earliest literary reference to Kālīghāţ. In works like the Kālkāmaṅgala of Balarāma Kaviśekhara, Anādimaṅgala of Rāmadāsa Adaka, Kālīghāţ¹ is mentioned among the prominent places where Kālī is worshipped, and salutation to the goddess is written. These works date back to seventeenth or eighteenth century.

Rathin Mitra informs us that the present Kālī temple at Kālīghāṭ was built by a Sāvarṇa landlord of Barishā, a suburb of Calcutta, in or about 1809 A.D. In fact, however, this temple is the result of the renovation of the temple originally built in the 16th century.



Pīthasthānas

Many of the Pithasthānas, mentioned in Purāņa and Tantra, are Mātrpīthas, In Bengal (including Bangladesh), there are the following Kālipīthas: Candraśekhara-Sītākuṇḍa in Caṭṭala (Chittagong), Mehar in Tripurā district, Yaśoreśvarī of Jessore, Bhavāni or Aparṇā of Bhavānīpur in Baguḍā district, Kirīṭeśvarī of Kīrtikona in Mursidābād district, Mahābalā Bhadrakālī of Kālighāṭ (Calcutta), Nalāteśvarī of Nalhāṭ Yodādyā of Kṣīragrāma.

Kali and Dacoits

In connexion with Kālī, it should be noted that some dacoits of Bengal were worshippers of this deity. They used to invoke Kālī before undertaking operation, and worshipped her with a portion of their booty. It is said that some of them resorted to human sacrifice for pleasing Kālī. The stories of the dacoits, named Raghu, Viśe, Buddho, etc. have become a part of the folk-tales of Bengal. Some of the notorious hide-outs of dacoits were at the following places in West Bengal:

Kānchḍāpāḍa (24 Paraganas, North) Moynāpur (Bānkurā-Visnupur), Bagati (Hughli), Singur (Hughli), Cakrapur (Ārāmbāg, Hughli), Bhātendā (24 Paraganas), etc.⁹

Śyāmā-Sangīta

It should be noted, in connexion with songs about Kālī, that She was not looked upon merely as Mother. In the poem, captioned 'Kālī the Mother; penned by Svāmī Vivekānanda, in extreme anguish and agony, invokes¹⁰ Kālī symbolising Death. A portion of this poem, as translated by Satyendranāth Datta, is as follows:

nāce tārā unmād tāṇḍave-mṛtyurūpa mā āmār āy! karālī! karāl nāmtor, mṛtyutor niśvāse praśvāse, tor bhīm caraṇ nikṣepe pratipale brahmāṇḍa vināśe! Kālī tui pralayarūpiṇī, āy māgo, āy mor pāśe!

Tantric influence on Caryapada

The Cakra (nerve-plexuses) and Padmas (lotuses), conceived in Tantra to be within the body, are mentioned in the following line of the Caryapada, the earliest extant work in Bengali literature:

eko so padumā, cauṣāṭi pākhuḍi (No. 10)

The Tantric devotee aims at rousing Kundalini, slumbering in the base,



Mūlādhāra, and raising it to the apex, Sahasrāra. The Caryāpada also hints at directing the awakened Bodhicitta to the Mahāsukhacakra:

duhila dudhu ki bente sāmāe (No. 33)

Tantra recognises three principal Nāḍīs: Iḍā on the left, Pingalā on the right and Suṣumnā in the middle. The vital breath and Śakti move through Suṣumnā. In the following lines, quoted from the Caryāpada, there is the direction, according to the Buddhist Sahajiyā doctrine, for resorting to the middle path of Sahaja after leaving the right and the left

Sānkamata caḍhile dāhin vām māhohi / niyaḍḍi sohi dūr mā jāhī/ (No. 5) vām dāhin cāpi mili māṅgā/ vātata milila mahāsuha sāṅgā/ (No. 8)

Sculpture and Tantra

In the realm of Bengal sculpture, impact of Tantra is noticeable in various images¹¹ of the goddesses mentioned in Tantra. The image at Deubāḍī, in the district of Tripurā, reminds one of Bhadradurgā and Bhadrakālī mentioned in the Sāradātilaka. The image of Ugratīrā at Sikārpur, in the district of Bākharganj (now in Bangladesh), is a Tāntric deity. The figures of the seven Mātrkās, in many pieces of stone and terracotta found at several places, testify to the influence of Tantra; the Mātrkās have been conceived as Śaktis of gods. In the different nooks and corners of Bengal, there are countless images of Kālī, the typical Tāntric deity. Not only Hindu deities, there are many images of Buddhist deities, which bear the impress of Tantra. As instances, we may mention Tārā, Vajratārā, Bhṛkuṭitārā, Parṇaśabarī, etc. Mention may also be made of the images of Heruka, Hevajra, etc.

Architecture and Tantra

Tantra made its impact on Bengal architecture too. There is a temple, dedicated to goddess Hamseśvari, at Bānsebriyā (Vaṃśavāṭi) in the district of Hughli, to the west of the Ganges, about fifty kilometers from Calcutta. A landlord, named Nṛṣiṃha Devrāy, who was a Tāntric devotee, planned this temple, and began its construction in 1799 A.D. It was completed by his widow in 1814 A.D.



The interior of the temple is built like six Tantric Cakras. The deity has been represented as Kundalini which is rising upward. Besides the three principal Nādis, called Idā, Pingalā and Suṣumnā, two other Nādis, called Vajrākhya and Citriņi, have been shown by means of a ladder within the temple. The aforesaid deity is represented as seated on a lotus on the navel of Siva lying in a triangular Yantra (Tantric diagram). In the lower left hand of the goddess, there is a human skull, the upper right hand is shown in the pose of Abhayamudrā. One of the two other hands holds a sword, and the remaining one clutches a conch-shell. The very name Hamseśvarī is Tantric. Ham is a Tantric Bīja, and Sa indicates Śakti. The union of Ham and Sa is considered to be the means of attaining the untlimate goal.

Painting and Tantra

The art of painting, prevailing in Eastern India in the Pala period (c. 750 - c. 1155 A.D.), reveals the impact of Tantra. Some paintings, contained in manuscripts, reflect the model of Prajfiāpāramitā on the one hand, and faith in Tantra on the other. An example is furnished by the picture of Lokanātha, dating back to the 12th-13th cent. It is preserved in the posture of Ardhaparyanka. The right hand is in the boon-giving pose, and the left holds a lotus with stalk. 12 Figures of deities in accordance with Vajrayāna-Tantrayāna, are painted in some Buddhist manuscripts of the 11th-12th cent. Two manuscripts of Astasāhasrikā-prajñāpāramitā have been found; one of them dates back to the 39th regnal year or Rāmapāla c. 1077-1120 A.D.), and the other to 19th regnal year of Harivarman. A manuscript of the Pañcavimsati-sāhasrikā prajňāpāramitā harks back to the 8th regnal year of Harivarman. 13 These testify to Tantric inspiration in the domain of the art of painting. That the votaries of Tantra used to cultivate the art of painting is indicated by the paintings contained in some Tantric mansucripts or on their wooden covers, dating from the medieval period. Such a painting appears in a manuscript (1443 A.D.) of the Kālacakra-tantra.

The well-known Pat paintings of Kālīghāt, Calcutta, originally centred around Kālī and her temple. In course of time, however, many other motifs, besides Kālī, were adopted by the artists.

Minor religious sects influenced by Tantra¹⁴

Tantra has a philosophy. Rites and rituals are not all that Tantra teaches us. Justice Woodroffe (1865-1936), his preceptor, Sibchandra



Vidyārṇava (b. 1860 A.D.) and Manmathanath Datta, among others, tried to bring out the philosophy of Tantras. But, most of the common people took the enjoyment of the five *Tattvas* (*Pancamakāras* as these are generally known) as the be-all and end-all of Tāntric *Sādhana*. This attitude to Tantra reminds one of the fact that a girl, after listening to the story of the *Mahābhārata*, remarked that the lesson, derived from it, is that a girl can marry five men. The inevitable result of the above attitude was levity, licence and lasciviousness that corrupted the society.

About the horrible nature of the Tantric rites in the nineteenth-century Bengal, Ward has given a vivid picture in his work, A View of the History, Literature and Mythology of the Hindoos. Here is a brief account, according to Ward's Report, of the then society reeking and reeling with Tantric practices of incredible indecency.

For the purpose of such a rite, a woman would be brought to the chosen place. The devotees of the righthanded sect (dakṣiṇācārī) would bring their own wives. Those of the left-handed one (vāmācārī) would select a woman from anyone of the following communities:

barber, washerman, Candala, Muslim, etc.

The woman, meant for the ritual, would be seated and worshipped with various articles including eatables of various sorts. After the worship, the woman would eat fish, meat etc.; and drink wine. The remnants of her food and drink would be put by the devotees into the mouth of one another irrespective of caste. Then the woman was stripped of her clothes, and orgy ensued in which the first participant was the priest followed by others.

Ward concludes his account by writing that very few people followed the precepts of the Śāstras. They considered the ritual as a licence for enjoying wine and sex, etc.

En passant, it may be added that some degenerated Tantras held out the hedonistic ideal embodied in such statements as vāme rāmā ramaņa-kuśalā dakṣiņe pānapātram (to the left is a woman skilled in sexual intercourse and to the right a goblet).

Ward has also cited examples of human sacrifice in Tantric worship.

A reprehensible fall-out of the degenerated Tantric practices was what was known as *Guruprasāda*. It is reported that a newly married girl would be, at first, enjoyed by the *Guru*, and then she would be allowed to lie down with her husband.

Inspired by new values in the wake of the Renaissance in Bengal in the nineteenth century, some young men tried to eradicate the loathsome practices to which the gullible people resorted under the guidance of the



so-called Gurus who were unscrupulous, and exploited the devotees' naive beliefs to fill their pockets.

A funny incident in connexion with dealing a blow to the vicious system of *Guruprasāda*, referred to above, may be related here. It is reported that a newly married girl was lying with the *Guru* on a bed under which a young man was hiding with a stick to teach a lesson to the *Guru*. While courting the girl, the *Guru* asked her to say āmi rādhā tumi śyām (I am Rādhā, you are Kṛṣṇa). As soon as he uttered it, the young man pounced upon him saying - ei kāndhe lāṭhi balarām (here is Balarām with a stick on his shoulder).

Here we shall briefly describe some little known or unknown religious sects which were influenced by Tantra. It should be stated that corruption did not infiltrate into each and every one of these sects. Some of them adopted the liberal Tāntric principles of giving women right to religious practices, denied in the orthodox Śāstras, and doing away with the caste distinctions and untouchability which, according to Mahātmā Gandhi, is a blot on Indian society. Besides Tantra, the Sahajiyā doctrine also appears to have produced considerable impact on them.

Kartābhajā Sect

A fairly large number of adherents were claimed by the sect in the eighteenth and early nineteenth century.

One, Aulacand (d. 1769 A.D.), founded this sect, and preached this religion in the district of Nadīyā. After his demise, one, Rāmśaran Pāl, of Ghoshpāḍā near Naihāṭi, became the leader of this sect. He did not recognise caste distinction, and used to initiate both Hindus and Muslims. The adherents of this sect looked upon their Kartā or Guru as God incarnate or the embodiment of Kṛṣṇa. Low-class women would serve him even as Gopīs are stated to have done towards Kṛṣṇa. The influence of the Guru was so great that the devotees did not call their begetters father. To them, the Guru was the father of all. The conduct of the Gurus, as laid down in contemporary newspaper (Somaprakāśa, 1863 A.D.) is briefly as follows.

Kartā is lying on bed, surrounded by a host of women. Some of them are shampooing his feet, some rubbing sandal-paste on his body, while others are garlanding him. Some Kartas carry away the clothes of their female devotees, and climb trees. Devotees of all castes sit together for worship. The precepts of this sect are, of course, noble and point to a righteous way of life. Akshay Datta has remarked that immoral practices have eclipsed whatever good is there in the doctrine of this sect.

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Rāmavallabiti Sect

One, Rādhāvallabha, of village Bānsberiya in Hughli district of West Bengal, was the founder. In it, Kṛṣṇa, Christ and Muhammad were regarded as equal, and the Gītā, Bible and Qurān used to be studied with equal reverence. In course of time, the sect came to be called Rāmavallabhī. Guru Nānak also was an object of adoration. Among other things, beef was also offered in religious rites, and used to be eaten as prasāda. The song, current in this sect, was - Kālūkṛṣṇa God Khodā, kona nāme nāhi vādha (Kālī, Kṛṣṇa, God Khodā - there is no bar to any name). This attempt at religious symbiosis reminds one of Ramkrishna's (1835-1886) oft-repeated remark 'yata mat, tata path' (there are as many ways as there are doctrines), as also of Kesab Sen's (1838-1884) Navavidhān, as a religious system.

Sähebdhani sect

The story is that one, named Sāhebdhani, who was indifferent to worldly life, founded this sect in the forests of the villages, Sāligrām, Dogāchiyā etc., in Nadīyā district. Both Hindus and Muslims were inducted into its fold. The adherents of this sect did not worship images; they looked down upon images and *Mantragurus*.

Vaisņava sect

Some small sub-sects, belonging to the Vaisnava community, made considerable impact on the populace. These were called

Spastadāyaka, Sakhībhāvaka, Aul, Bāul,

Sahaji, Sāin, Nyada, Darveś, etc.

These sects had the following common features:

Prakṛti-sādhana (worship in the company of women), absence of caste-distincion, taking food from one another, etc.

Spastadāyaka

In this order, Guru was not looked upon as an incarnation of God; his authority was limited. Its founder was Rūparam Kavirāja, disciple of Kṛṣṇa Cakravartin of Saidābad in the district of Murshidābād. A band of ascetics, male and female, used to control the adherents. The adherents used to live in Maṭhas as brothers and sisters.

Sakhibhavaka

The male adherents of this order used to dress themselves as females.



Having experienced delight in reciting the names of Kṛṣṇa and Caitanya, they used to sing and dance. Low-class people were initiated into this order. Their main centre was at Jangalitolā in the district of Māldā. The sphere of their influence extended to Jaipur and Vārāṇasī.

The English version of the remarks of Aksay Datta¹⁵ about the Order of $\overline{A}ul$, may be quoted:

"Their other name is Sahaja Kartābhajā... Many prostitutes overtly or covertly are engaged in their Sādhana. They do not drudge their wives even attached to other men."

There were some other minor Vaişņava sub-sects, too. These were as follows:

- (1) Khusiviśvāsī: Founded by a Muslim named Khusi Viśvās, of village Bhaga near Devagrāma, in the district of Nadīyā. In this Order, Khusi is regarded as an incarnation of Caitanya, and caste distinction is not recognised.
- (2) Gauravādī: In this Order, Gaurānga is looked upon with greater reverence than even Kṛṣṇa. The image of Gaurānga is worshipped, and his name is constantly recited.
- (3) Balarāma sect: Founded by Balarāma Hāḍi of village Meherpur in the district of Nadīyā. In it, he is worshipped as if he is Rāma. The adherents do not recognise caste distinction. Most of the disciples are householders, some are indifferent to the world. The people of the latter class are unmarried, but free from sexual indulgence. There is no imageworship. After the demise (1851) of Balarāma, a woman, named Brahmaka Maloni was given the status of Guru.
- (4) Pagalpanthī: This sect prevailed among the Muslims of Serpur in the district of Mymensing in Bangladesh. Its founder was Tipu Pagal of the village. Letiyakanda in Pargana Susang. The central teaching of the sect is this; all men are created by God, nobody is under the control of anybody, the discrimination as high and low is meaningless.
- (5) Miscellaneous: Three Muslims, Hajrat, Gobrā, Pāgalnāth, founded three independent sects in imitation of the aforesaid Kartābhājā sect.

Tilak Dās, belonging to the Kartābhajā sect, having renounced it, founded a sub-sect called Tilakdāsī, and proclaimed himself as incarnation of Śaiva, Viṣṇu, etc. Darpanārāyan Muchi of Sāntipur was a strong exponent of this sect.



NOTES

- 1. Vide Samkariprasād Basu, Niveditā Lokamatā.
- For details, see the following Bengali books:
 Diptimay Rāy Paścim Vanger Kālī O Kāliksetra;
 Bratindra Mukherji Śaktir Rūp bhārate O Madhya Esiyāy.
 Also see the Bengali journal, Desh, Calcutta, dated 17.10.87 (B.N. Mukherji's article Kālī devir mūrtitattva).
- 3. Usually made of stone, metal or earth.
- 4. E.g. stone-phallus or other forms. There is a phallus-symbol at Kirtikon.
- 5. As in Mehar. At Sitakunda, the goddess is supposed to be in the form of fire. In rare cases, the goddess is worshipped also in water.
- 6. According to some, it is Buddhist Ugratārā. It is worshipped with Tārā-mantra contained in the Nilatantra. But, from the following Dhyāna-mantra in the Devi-māhātmya, the image appears to be that of Kālī:
 - vicitra-khaṭvāṅgadharā asipāśinī, dvīpi-carma-paridhānā, jihvā-lalana-bhīsanā/
- A tradition would have us believe that the image at this place was installed by Gorakṣanātha (c. 11th or 12th cent.), a renowned Guru of the Nātha Order.
- 8. Vide Telegraph, a Calcutta daily, dated 23.12.90 (Magazine).
- 9. For details, see Diptimoy Roy, Paścim Vanger Kālī O Kālīkṣetra (1391 B.S.), p.185 ff.
- 10. For the attitude of Svāmījī vis-a-vis Šakti, see Svamijike yerup dekhiyāchi, Svami Mādhavānanda's Bengali trs. of The Master as I Saw Him by Sister Niveditā, chap. XI.
- 11. Vide R.C. Majumdar, Bamla Deser Itihas, Madhyayug, Adhunik yug.
- 12. Vide S.K. Sarasvati, Pal Yuger Citrakala (in Bengali), p. 125.
- 13. Vide R.C. Majumdar, Bamla Deser Itihās, Prācīn Yug, p. 236.
- For details, see R.C. Majumdar, Bāmlā Deśer Itihās, vol. 3, pp.243-64; Aksay Datta's Bhārtavarṣiya Upāsak Sampradāy (in Bengali); newspaper entitled Somaprakāśa, 1863 A.D.
- 15. Vide Bhārtavarṣiya Upāsak Sampradāy, (Bengali), p. 175.

APPENDICES

I. Unpublished Tantras of Bengal

We have given accounts of the published Tantras of Bengal along with the personal history of their authors. Besides these works, some are available in manuscripts, while others are known only from references to them contained in other works. In addition to these little known or unknown works of Bengal, which are mostly digests or compendia for ritualistic purposes, there are commentaries by Bengal writers on some well-known Tantric works. We set forth below the titles of the unpublished Tantric works of Bengal with such details about their places of deposit, authors and contents as could be gleaned from various sources. The following abbreviations have been used here:

AS: Asiatic Society Catalogue, Calcutta.

CC: Catalogus Catalogrum by T. Aufrecht.

IO: India Office Catalogue, London.

N: Navadvipa Sādhāraņa Granthāgāra, Navadwip, Nadiya, West Bengal.

NCC: New Catalogus Catalogrum by V. Raghavan.

NM: Notices of Skt. MSS. by R. L. Mitra.

NP: Catalogue of Skt. MSS. in Private Libraries of NW. Provinces.

NS: Notices of Skt. MSS. by H. P. Sastri.

SC: (Government) Sanskrit College, Calcutta.

SKR: A Handlist of MSS. with Sarat Kumar Roy, 1-4. European Asylum Lane, Calcutta.

SKRDC: An Unfinished Descriptive Catalogue of the above collection.

SSP: Handlist of Skt. MSS. in Sanskrit Sāhitya Pariṣat, Calcutta.

Varendra: A Handlist of MSS in Varendra Research Society, Rajshahi, Bangladesh.

VSP: Catalogue of MSS. belonging to Vangīya Sāhitya Pariṣat, Calcutta.

VSP Sup: A Supplementary Handlist of MSS. in Vangiya Sāhitya Parişat, Calcutta.





Titles are in Devanāgari Alphabetical Order

Title	Author	Reference to MS.	Remarks
Abhijñāna- ratnāvalī	Rāmānanda Tarkālankāra	AS 3603 G viii.A 6211 NM xi. Pref. 15 Varendra 1217	An extensive work on the worship of Śakti. The AS MS. contains only fragments of Chapters i- iv.
Amarasam- graha	Amara Maitra		Author, son of Viṣṇvānanda.For MS. and bio- graphy of author, see under Tāntric Texts of Bengal.
Agama-candrikā	Kṛṣṇa-mohana	AS 6209 viii. i. 6209 VSP p.187 and Intro. pp. xxv-xxvi	Author, a Kāyastha of Pūrvasthalī in West Bengal. He appears to have been well off and to have appointed Pandits for com- piling works for himself. In this work, it is stated to have been compiled by Pandits. To Kṛṣṇamohana are attributed as many as eighteen works including the Kamalodaya and the

Nītiśataka: these two mention some of the eighteen works. Vide AS vii. 5250, 5251, 5508-9; VIII. 6209; NS II. 41; VSP, pp. 125, 187. The Agamacandrikā deals with rules of initiation and the worship of deities of the group of Mahāvidyā.

Agamacandrikā Rāmakṛṣṇa Tarkālaṃkāra NM I 269. CCI. p. 273 AS 6214 VSP Sup No. 1879 Intro. p. xvii.

From it we learn that the author was son of Raghunātha and a resident of Napādā, popularly known as Daksina Navadvīpa, in Andul near Calcutta. It is a summary of Raghunātha's Agama-tattvavilāsa. The date of composition of the Agamacandrikā is munivedanrpe sāke, i.e. Saka 1647 (=1725 A.D.).

Agamatattvuvilāsa

Raghunātha Tarkavāgīša SC 1053 AS G viii. i. 6214 1611 NM IX. 3186 (1st, etc.) NS I 22 (5 chaps) SKR 172 Tantric modes

Author, son of Śivarāma. Written in 1687 in 5 chaps; it deals with of worship and

mantras for various deities. In the beginning, the author is stated to have consulted 160 works including the Tärärahasya and Syamarahasya. Part of it printed. See Cat. of Printed Books in British Мизеит.

Adyakaraņatantra-Anandalahariţīkā

Vidyāvāgiša Mahādeva Vidyāvāgīša SSP A 1389 AS G 6582 IO IV. 2624

From the work it is learnt that the author was son of Yadavananda Chakravarti, grandson of Vidyāsāgara and great-grandson of Subuddhimiśra. Author said to have obtained the titleVidyavägisa from his preceptor at Visnupura,

situated within
Māndāraṇa. Date
of composition
— 1527 Śaka
(=1605 A.D.).
Said to have been
written in
Jahangir's
reign. Vide
Indian Culture,
IV, p. 322.

(Hari-	Harinārāyaņa
bhakti-	
Śuddho-	
dayā)	

Do	Govinda Tarkavāgīśa	AS G 3694, 5204 NM X 3373 VSP 334

Do	Šrikṛṣṇa	AS G 3905
	Tarkalankara	
	Bhattacarya	

Amarı-	Amara Maura	
samhitā		For MS. and bio-
•		graphy of author,
		see under Täntric
		Texts of Bengal.

SS G 3973 NS II 17

Kakārādi- Kāli-	Pürņānanda	
sahasra-		
nāma		
Kaṅkāla- mālinī-	Rāmasvarūpa	SSP 375
tantra		

Karpū- rādi- stava- ṭīkā (Prabo- dhinī)	Rāmakiśora	NS III 48 Dacca University Handlist, No. 3967	Author appears to have been a descendant of Sarvavidyā.
Do	Yādavendra Bhaṭṭācārya	Sanskrit College, Benares, 1916-17 p. 3 (No. 2624) with text	
Kāmya- yantro- ddhāra	Mahāmahopā- dhyāya Pari- vrājakācārya	NS III. 53	Dated 1375 A.D.
Kālikā- rahasya	Pürņānanda		
Kālikādi- sahasra- nāma	Pūrņānanda	NP V 138 AS VI B 6643-46 Dacca University No. 552 B NS I Travancore University No. 7 Viśvabhāratī 509	, 61 799
Kālī- tattva- sudhā- bindu	Kāliprasāda Kāvyacuncu	NM IX. 2956	
Kālī- sarvasva- sampuţa	Śrīkṛṣṇa Vidyālaṅkāra	NS I. 60 Varenda 979 Dacca DR 3	ra Author, son of 3 Nyäyavägīśa.

Candraśekhara NS II. 37 Kulapūjanacandrikā or Kulapüjā-SSP I. J. 53 candrika Śamkara Kulamülä-VALUE Kaulikār-Rāmaratna SSP 411 canađīpik**≅** Krama-Ramagarbha NM L 331 Contains mantras candrikā Sārvabhauma SC 761 applicable in Tantric rites. Author appears to have been the preceptor of the famous Cand Ray and Kedār Rāy of Vikramapura, now in Bangladesh. He is also known as Gosvāmi Bhattacarya.

Krama-

Śamkara

Gururājatantra Rāmalocana SSP A 1183

Guru-

pādukā-

stotratikā Durgādāsa Viśvabhāratī

Vidyāvācaspati Annais 190 (b) VSP p. 267 SSP III. U.

p. 267 SSP III. U. 52 Dacca University

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Original from UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

MS. 1350 AS 3401, 6118, 5289, 3917A VIII. B. 6798 5799 -6801, 6802

Do (-pañcaka) Raghunandana Nyāyapaticānana

Dacca University MS. No. 1974, 2964 NS I, 97.

Gautamiyatantratattvadipikä Rādhāmohana

VSP 39 (117), 40 (335)

Author seems to be identical with the Vaisnava author of this name, who wrote the Krsnabhaktisudhārnava and commentaries on the Suddhitativa of Raghunandana and the Gautamanyāyasūtra. Radhamohana was a writer of the nineteenth cent and a friend of Colebrooke. Vide VSP, p. 16.

Cakradīpikā Rāmabhadra Sārvabhauma ASG 141 VIII R 6622 Dacca University 187 A. 1884 Quoted in Tantrasāra
Aufrecht's
Bodleian Cat.95a.

Cakradīpikā Ratneśvara

SC 633

Jfiānādīpikā Amara Maitra

For MS. and biography of

			author, see under Täntric Texts of Bengal.
Jijānā- minda- tarangiņi	Śiromani	NM I 286	
Tattva- prakāśa	Jfiānānanda Brahmacārī	NS I 137	Composed in 1730 Śaka (=1808 A.D.) in 12 Chapters.
Tattvā- nanda- taraṅgiņī	Pürņānanda	AS Cat. VIII. 6200	
Tantra- kaumudi	Govindacandra	SSP A. 1184	
Tantra- candrika	Rămagati Sena	AS 6274	Author, perhaps identical with that of the yoga-kalpalatikā (NS. I. 299). He is said to have been a resident of East Bengal (Bangladesh). Vide NS.I. Preface p. 21.
Tantra- dipani	Rāmagopāla Śarmā	NS II 79	Composed in 1626 Śaka (=1794 A.D.) in 11 Chapters. Author, a disciple of Kāśināthānandanātha

			otherwise known as Paramani- rafijana
Tantra- dīpikā	Gopāla paficānana	ASG 5097 NS I 138 NM VI 2262 SC	Author, grandson of Kṛṣṇānanda Agamavāgīśa and son of Harinātha Bhaṭṭācārya.
Tantra- pradīpa	Jagannātha Cakravartī	NS I 139	
Tantra- pradīpa- prabhā	Sanatuna Tarkācārya	NS II 80	
Tantra- prakāša	Govinda Sărvabhauma	ASG 5641	Deals with dikṣā, puraścaraṇa, etc., and the worship of Tārā and Tripurā.
Tantra- ratna	Kṛṣṇa Vidyāvāgīśa	ASG 10494 IO IV 2573 NMI 240 SC 913	Deals with worship of Kält and Tärä.
Tantra- saṃkṣepa- candrikā	Bhavānīśaṃkara Vandyopā- dhyāva	NS II 81	
Tantra- sāra	Ramananda Tirtha	AS II A 48	Complete in 10 Chaps. On page 93, there is a quotation from the Śri-tattva-

cintamāṇi of
Pūrṇānanda.
Author was a
protégé of
Kṛṣṇacandra
(eighteenth
century), king
of Nadīyā.

Tārārcanacandrikā Jagannātha Bhaṭṭācārya

ASG 6537

Tārārahasyavṛtti

Gaudīya Saṃkara VSP 33-35 (108, 732, 1267) IO IV 26038. See Cat. of Skt. MSS., Asiatic Society, Calcutta, Vol.VIII, p. xli

Tarābhaktitaraṅgiņī Kāśīnātha

NM IV 1607

Date 1737 Śaka (=1815 A.D.)
Kṛṣṇacandra,
king of Nadīyā,
mentioned as
the author's
patron.

Tārāvilāsodaya

Vāsudeva Kavikankaņa Cakravartī ASG 790, 3455

Tikṣṇăkalpa Rādhāmohana NS II 90

Written in Saka 1732 (=1810 A.D.). Author, a landlord of Candrapratāpa in Dacca district (Bangladesh).

NM VII 2487 Tripurār-Brahmänanda canarahasya Haragovinda NM I 291 Daksinā-Tantravāgīśa kalpa Rāmakiśora Author, a Diksāmember of the tativa-Sarvavidya prakāśa family of Mehār (Bangladesh). Vide K. Sen. Cinmay Vanga, p.173. NS X 3311 Author, son of Panca-Räghava kalpataru Devasarmã Ramananda Tarkapañcānana. It is a digest on Tantric rites, and contains a fairly elaborate account of mystic mandalas and Durgapūja with those mandalas. Haragovinda For MSS, and Pancabiography of maveda-Rāya the author, see -RTR2 under Tantras nimaya of Bengal. Puras-Vāsudeva VSP 39 (1309) **Author** Sārvabhauma identified as carana-Sarvā-nandika ргауода-

darśa

sādhusāgnika-

jñānānanda bhattācāryā tmaja.

Purasсагапа-

Candraśekhara

CC I p.340

SC 1058

dīpikā

Puras-Kāśicandra

SSP 1383

carno-11**5**33-

tantra

Pranakṛṣṇa-

vaişnavāmṛta

Bholānātha

Brahmacārī

Composed for Prānakrsna Biswas in 1748

Śaka (=1826 A.D.). Deals with Tantric rites of Vaisņavas.

Bhāvanirtipana **ASG 4660**

Appears to be a part of Ramagati Sena's Tantracandrikā (Supra).

Mantrakośa

Jagannātha Cakravarti

VSP 43 (1548 Kha) NM VII 2378 In the second MS., the author's name ends in

Bhattācarya. In the contents are mentioned, inter alia, Tantric bljamantras and their explanation. It also contains a brief account of the origin and nature of alphabet.

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ASG 6028 Mantra-Yadunatha Cakravarti ratnākara VSP 55 (1482) Mahimnah-Raghunandana Nyāyavāgīśa stotratikā SSP 417 Munda-Nyāyavāgīśa malatontra Rāmakiśora Mudrā-See Diksātattvaprakāša (Supra). prakāša Aditya **SSP 774** Yakşinitantra Yogakal-Rāmagati Sena **NSI 299** palatikā Vanamālī VSP 60 (1408) Rahasyā-Асагуа mava Lalitā-Rajendra VSP 64 (753) A digest, in NM IV 1674 rahasya **Tarkavāgiša** nine chapters, based on various Purānas and Tantras. In it attempts have been made to establish the predominance of Krsna. Vama-Rāmagopāla NM I 280 Deals with bhairava origin of sound **Pañcānana** and the significance of letters starting with 'a'.

Varņā- bhidhāna	Yadunandana Bhaṭṭācārya	ASG 8144 NM II 560 IO II 1046 SC 1492	In the last two MSS., the author's name is Śrīnandana Bhaṭṭācārya.
Vaša- kārya- mafijari	Rājārāma Bhaṭṭācārya	ASG 3463	
Śākta- krama	Pürņānanda	NM VI 2067	
Śivār- cana- mahāratna	Śaṃkara		
Śaiva- rama	Do		
Šyāmā- kaipalatā	Rāmacandra Kavicakra- vartī	ASG 3459 NS I 372	
Šyāmā- kalpa- latikā	Mathuranatha	Pub. Guptapalli 1825 (with Beng translation)	
Śyāmā- pūjā- paddhati	Cakravartī	ASG 5958 India Museum Collect No. 4590	
Śyāmā- raina	Yādavendra Vidyālaņkāra	NM I 377	
Śyāmār- cana- candrikā	Ratnagarbha Särvabhauma	NM I 220	For particulars about the author, see Krama-candrikā (Supra).

Śyāmā-**ASG 3540** Kāśīnātha Tarkapaficāsantoşana Stoira nana Composed in **ASV vii 3603** Śyāmā-Kāśinātha Šaka 1699 Tarkālamkāra **saparyā-**(=1777 A.D.) in vidhi seven chapters. AS 6628-29 Text of Karpura-Śyāmā-Durgārāma stotra and its Siddhantastavacomm. Vägiša tikā Bhaţţācārya Kṛṣṇānanda NM 281 Sritativabodhinī NM IV 309 VSP Satkarma-Sri Krsna Vidyāvāgīśa 85 (363) ASG dīpikā 3881 Calcutta Sanskrit College MS. 410 **NS IV 308** Pürnänanda Satkarmollāsa **Brahmānanda** Satcakradīpikā Satcakra-Pumananda dīpikātikā With the author's AS 6367 Satcakra-Nandarāma Tarkavāgīśa SC 446 name are niriipana associated the works Atma-



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prakāsikā (10 IV. 2400), Sāmkhyaprakāsikā (Ibid. IV 2457), etc. Author perhaps identical with the author of Svarupākhyastava-tikā. In the Satcakranirūpana, he has mentioned Harivallabha Rāya as his patron. He appears to have flourished before Saka 1638 (=1716 A.D.).

Şaţcakrakramadīpikā

Rāmabhadra Sārvabhauma NS I 386 SC 619

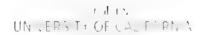
Şaţcakrabheda (Şaţcakra) Pūrņānanda

Şatpadyamālā

Rāmarāma Bhaṭṭācārya NS I 387

Sanātanadharmānușthāna Jaganmohana Tarkālamkāra

First part deals with the procedure of tenfold Saṃskāra in accordance with Tantra. Second part deals with procedural



matters relating to Śrāddha in conformity with Tantric practices. Śivanātha A biography of NS iii 336 Sarva-Sarvananda by nandahis son. taranginī SSP 634 Vinodacandra Sadhanamala Account given AS 6350 Sundari-Ratnanābha by himself — Agamācārya rahasya-Värendra vŗtti Brahmana. Maitreya. Son of Nārāyana, grandson of Mukunda. disciple of Gopinātha. Adinatha **SSP A 1237** Sundariśakti-

Svarūpākhya-

varadänam

stava-

tikā

Nandarama

VSP 154 (1356 Ka) 155 (1356 Kha)

NS I 39

II. Tantras Mentioned in the Smrti Digests of Bengal

Abbreviations

DK: Danakaumudi of Govindananda, Bib. Indica, Calcutta.

DV: Durgotsavaviveka of Śūlapāṇi, Skt. Sāhitya Pariṣat, Calcutta.

ET: Ekādasītatīva in Smṛtitatīva of Raghunandana.

SK: Śrāddhakaumudī of Govindānanda, Bib. Indica, Calcutta.

TT: Tithitattva in Smrti-tattva of Raghunandana.

VK: Varşakriyākaumudī of Govindānanda, Bib. Indica, Calcutta.

VV: Vratakālaviveka of Śūlapāņi.

(In Devanāgari alphabetical order)

Kapilapaficaratra

DK-5,13,126,129,130,

180,192,204,205

DV-23

Gavākṣatantra

DV-12

Gărudatantra

VK-283

Gautamitantra

VK-146

Nāradapańcarātra

VK-150

Nāradīya-saṃhitā

TT-51

Nigamapariśista

SK-53, 317

VK-17

Puraścarana-candrikā

VK-118, 152, 158, 176,

179

ET-74, 85

Bhuvaneśvaritantra

VK-160

Matsyasükta

DK-206

DV-7, 11, 13, 23

Mahākapilapaficarātra

DV-23

Yoginītantra

VK-120, 132, 149, 157,

175, 372, 440, 441, 442

Rudrayāmala

SK-266

VK-157, 284

Śāradā (Tilaka?)

DV-11

Śāradātilaka

VK-118-21, 126-28, 134

136, 139, 145, 149, 150, 152, 153, 157, 159, 162,

170, 171, 173,174,176,

190, 384, 385, 391, 565

Śivāgama

VK-76

Hayasırşapancaratra or

Hayasırşa

VV-24

DK-9,10, 68, 74, 75, 89,112,

124, 125, 126, 128, 130,

131, 141, 144, 146, 149,

150, 151, 153, 154, 155,

156, 158, 159, 164, 176,

178, 179, 180, 182, 185

188, 190, 191,

Tantras cited in the Haratattva-didhiti

(In Devanagari alphabetical order)
Little known works have been left out

Agamakalpadruma

Agamatattva-vilāsa

Agamadvaita-nimaya

Agama-sandarbha

Agamasāra

Uttarakāmākhyā-tantra

Uttara-tantra

Utapatti-tantra

Umājāmala

Kankalamalini-tantra

Kamalā-tantra

Kamalāvilāsa-tantra

Kātyāyanī-tantra

Kāmadhenu-tantra

Kāmākhyā-tantra

Kālīkalpa-tantra

Kākulāmṛta-tantra

Kālīkulārņava-tantra

Kālikrama-tantra

Kālītantra

Kālīvilāsa-tantra

Kubjikā-tantra

Kumārī-tantra

Kulaprakāśā-tantra

Kulācāra-tantra

Kulārņava-tantra

Kulāvalī-tantra Gandhāra-tantra

Gāyatrī-tantra

Guptadiksä-tantra

Gupta-sădhana-tantra

Guptārņava-tantra

Guru-tantra

Gotamiya-tantra

Gaurijāmala

Gheranda-samhită

Cinatantra

Jāmala

Jñānatantra

Jñanārnava-tantra

Dămara-tantra

Tantra-kaumudi

Tantracüdāmaņi

Tantradīpikā

Tantrapramoda

Tantraratna

Tantraraja

Tantrasāgara-samhitā

Tantrasāra Tantrādarša Tāntrikadarpana

Tärägama Tärätantra Tärärahasya Tärärahasya⁵vṛtti

Tararnava Todala-tantra

Trailokya-sammohana-tantra

Dakşināmürtikalpa
Dakşināmürti-samhitā
Dattātreya-jāmala
Durgā-kalpa-tantra

Devijāmala Devyāgama

Navaratneśvaratantra

Nārāyaņī-tantra Nigamakalpalatā Nigamakalpasāra Nigamatattvasāra

Nityātantra Nibandha-tantra Niruttara-tantra Nirvāna-tantra

Nilatantra
Picchilā-tantra

Puraścarana-candrikā Puraścarana-bodhinī

Purascarana-rasollasa-tantra

Phetkāriņī-tantra
Bṛhat-tantrasāra
Bṛhat-toḍala-tantra
Bṛhad-gautamīya-tantra

Brhad-rudrajāmala

Bṛhannirvāṇa Bṛhannīla-t Bṛhanmāyā-t Brahmajāmala

Brahmāṇḍa-tantra Bhagavad-bhakti-vilāsa tantra

Bhuvaneśvari-tantra Bhutasuddhi-tantra Bhairavajāmala Bhairava-tantra Bhairavi-tantra Matsvasūkta

Mantratantra-prakāša Mahākālamohinī-tantra Mahānirvāņa-tantra

Matanila-tantra Mahalingesvara-tantra

Mahişamardinî-tantra Matıkabheda-tantra

Māyātantra
Mālinī-tantra
Muṇḍamālā-tantra
Mṛḍānī-tantra
Meru-tantra
Yoginī-tantra

Rudrayāmala-tantra

Revā-tantra

Lingärcana-tantra Varadā-tantra Vāmakeśvara-t Vāmadeva-t Vārāhī-t Vidyotpatti-t

Vimalā-t Viśvasāra-t Viṣṇujāmala-t

Vira-t

Vyomaratna-t Saktijāmala Śakti-t Śakti-samgama-t Sāktānanda-t Śāmbhavī-t Šāradā-t Sāradā-tilaka Śāśvata-t Śikharinī-t Śyama-kalpalata Śyāmārahasya Śyamarcana-candrika

Śyāmā-saparyā-krama Śyama-saparya-vidhi

Śrītattva-cintāmaņi Sanatkumāra-t Samayā-t Samayācāra-t Sammohana-t Sārasvata-t Sarasvati-t Simhavāhinī-t Siddhalaharī-t Siddheśvari-t

Svacchanda-maheśvara-t

Svatantra-t

Hamsamaheśvara (Hamsaparameśvara) Hayasirşa-pañcaratra

Tantric authors mentioned in the Haratattva-dīdhiti **Tantradīpikākāra** Pürnānanda Brahmānandagiri

III. Works and Authors Cited in the Tantras of Bengal¹

(Arranged in English Alphabetical Order)

N.B.—The figures refer to the pages of the work against which these are mentioned.

A. WORKS

Title	Tantra in which mentioned
	with reference
Acāracintāmaņi	PV Kanda v
Acārasāra	P 344
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Adiyamala	T 611
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Agamasāra	P 239, T 4
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Agamottara	T 583
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Anandapatala	SU 120
Annadākalpa	P 104. PV Kanda ii
Arnava	S44
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	SU 33, 66. SR 7
BhairavItantra	T9
Bhärata	S 18
Bhāṣya	S 10
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SR 5



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	with reference
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Bhavişyapurāņa	P 88. S 14, 18
Bhutabhairava	T 40. PV Kanda ii
Bhūtadāmara	T 640. S 24
Bhūtaśuddhitantra	P 189. SS 8, 11, 17
Brahmajñānatantra	P 22, 23, 24, 25
Brahmajāmala	P 104. T 57, 384
Brahmapurāņa	T 686. S 183
Brahmasamhitā	Т 693, 776
Brahmavaivartapurāņa	P 346
Brhacchamkara-vijaya	P 495
Brhadyoni	SU 57, 107, etc.
Brhannilatantra	P 5
Brhat-stavarāja	T 414
Brhat-todalatantra	S 15
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•	SR 20, 50/(Samhita)
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Cintāmaņi	PV Kanda i
Dakşināmūrti	T 375, 377, 404. SU 134 (Samhita)
Dakşināmūrtisamhitā	T 160, 204
Dakşinămürtitantra	P 160, 204
Dakşināmūrtitantra	P 206
Dāmara	SR 22
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	138, 196, 206			
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Kukkuțeśvaratantra	P 339. T 586			
Kulacūḍāmaņi	P 157. T 6, 59, 20, 37, 38. SU 58, 73,			
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Kulamūlāvatāra-kalpasūtraţīkā				
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	A. SU 26, 400, etc. SR 5			
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Kulasāra-samgraha	SR 46			
Kulasambhava	SR 11, 32			
Kulasarvasva	PV Kanda v. SR 45			
Kulasāra	P 542. PV Kanda v. SR 22			
Kulatattvasāra	SU 83, 105, 148, 178			
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Title	Tantra in which mentioned
	with reference
Kumāritantra	P 511. T 508, 934, 949. S 41. SU 27,
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	T 958
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Lingapurāņa	P 326. T 96, 656
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Lingatantra	TR 1
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Mahācīna .	TR 8
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To what the past or desire a profit in	

Title	Tantra in which mentioned		
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Nandikeśvara-tantra	P 239		
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Nigama-kalpānanda	SU 23		
Nigamānanda	SU 63, 93		
	40 00, 10		

Title	Tantra in which mentioned
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Nīlasārasvata	T 488. TR 1
Nilatantra	SR 2, 51. TR 15. P 149. S 13, 15.
37	SU 228. T. 84, 130
Niruttaratantra	P 32. SU 32, 35, etc.
Nirvanatantra	P 5. SU 17, 59, etc.
Nityātantra	P 149
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Nṛsiṃha-tāpanīya	\$4
Padārthādarša	P 43
Padmapurāņa	P 180. T 65 (Padma), 762, 765. S 9
	(Padma). A
Padmavāhini	P 151
Pańcadaśi	P 23
Parakrama	P 17
Parapaficäśikā —	P 63
Parāparimalollāsa	P 12
Parāśarabhāşya	T 72
Parimalollāsa	P 61
Phetkāriņī	P 13. T 556, 559. S 19, 33, SR 3
Phetkārīya	T 488, 511
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Prayogasāra	P 7
Purāṇa-saṃgraha	P 352
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Paraścaranalahari-tantra	P 185
Puraścaranarāsollāsa	P 6. PV Kanda i
Rādhā	SU 9, 59
Rāghavīya	S 44
Rāmārcanacandrikā	P 92. T 35
Ratirahasya	P 558
Ratnāvali	T 38, 40

Title Tantra in which mentioned with reference P 548 Revatitantra Rudrādhyāya TR 6 Rudray (j)āmala P 17. T 5, 7, 16, 26, 30, S 4, 5, 6, etc. A. SU 145. SR 27. TR 7 P 118 Şadan vaya-mahāratna T 36, P 172 Saivagama SU 208, 211, 220 Šāktakramacandrikā (tantraka) Šāktānanda-taranginī P 27. PV Kanda ii TR 1 Saktikalpa Saktikāgamasarvasva P 554 **Saktisāra** TR 5 Šaktitantra PV Kanda iii T 8, SI, PV Kanda v. TR 38 **Saktiyāmala** P 64. T 954, 961. SU 27, 31, etc. Samayācāratantra T 404, 441 Samayānka Samayānkamātrkā S 19 Samayatantra T 4. S 10, 12, 15, 16, 37, 45 **Sāmbhava** T 153 Samkaratantra A T 506 Samketacandrodaya Sammohanatantra P 93. T 94, 127. S 15, 43, 32 Sanatkumāratantra T 44, 773 P 230. T (Sanatkumarasarnhita) 31, Sanatkumārīya 36, 42, S 29 Sahketapaddhati S 12 Sāradātilaka P 7. S 20. PV Kanda ii Sāradā S 6, 10, 19, 42, 43, 44, 45 SR₂ Säradä-tikä Sārasamgraha P 92, T 4, 54 T 656. PV Kanda iii Sarasamuccaya P 115. S 27, 25 Sārasvata Sarasvatitantra P 223 Sārāvalī T 673. S 20 P 117 **Satkarmadīpikā** Sautramanitantra P 287

S 27

SU 232

Setumangala-tantra

Siddhalahari

Tantra in which mentioned Title with reference P 113, 179. T 686. S 42 Siddhäntasekhara T 13, 530, 680. SR 37 Siddhasārasvata T 8, 385, 797 Siddhayāmala T 490, SR 35 Siddheśvartantra P 46 Siksāsūtra P 186, T 64, S 14 Sivadharma S 6 Sivadīksā-tīkā T 937, 961. SR 40 **Šivāgama** P 198 Sivarahasya PV Kanda iii **Sivatantra** P 180, T 842, S 41, A Skandapurāna P 288, 543 Smrtisāra TR 1 Sodhā-tantra T 415, 687 Somabhujagāvalī S 31 Śribijamava T 2, 9, 42. T 378 (-samhita). Śrikrama S 39, SR 2, 34 S 8 **Šrīrāmatāpanīya** T 155. P 32. SR 20 Šrītattvacintāmaņi P 420 Süksmasvarodaya P 322 Sūtasamhitā P 63. T 402 Svacchandabhairava T 536, PV Kanda i Svacchandasamgraha P 105 Svarodaya P 106 Svarodayatikā P 179. T 93, 408. SR i Svatantratantra Svayambhuva-matrka-tantra T 603 PV Kanda ii Syamakalpalata P 180 **Syamapradipa** PV Kanda v Śyāmārcanacandrikā P 179. S 10. SU 159 **Syamarahasya** P 448 **TaittirIyaka** S 22 Tantradevaprakāšika **Tantragandharva** S 6, 13, 17, 18, 20 P 234, T 515, SR 40 Tantraciidamani T 374 Tantrakaumudī



Tantraraja

T 18

Title	Tantra in which mentioned
	with reference
Tantrārņava	T 5. SR 19
Tantrasara	P 67
Tārānigama	TR 4
Tapani	P 61
Tarakalpa	T 826. TR I
Tarakrama	PV Kanda iii
Tarakula-sarvasva	TR I
Tārāsāra	TR 6
Täräyoga	TR 81
Tārinītantra	T 593
Tārāpradīpa	T 5
Тагаграма	T 504. TR 8
Tarini-numaya	T 527
Tärätantra	T 529
Tattvabodhu	T 397
Tattvānanda-tarangiņī	SR 15
Tattvasāra	P 39. T 116. S 5. PV Kanda i, iv, vi
Tikṣṇakalpa	PV Kanda ii
Tithitattva	P 21
Todalatantra	P 173
Traipuriśruti	T 379
Tripurakalpa	TR 30
Tripurāmava	T 358
Tripurāsārasamuccaya	P 419. T 139
Tripurāsāra	T 362, 364
Triśaktitantra	T 361
Udayākarapaddhati	P 188. SR 9, 21
Uddāmareśvaratantra	P 256
Urdhvāmnāyatantra	S 32. TR 1
Utpattitantra	PP 231
Uttarakalpa	S 7, 24
Uttarakhandoddīśa	PV Kanda iii
Uttaratantra	P 511. T 948. SR 5
Vābhaṭa	P 28
Vaikhānasagrantha	P 199

Vaiśampāyanasamhitā

T 3, 9, 34, 45, S 28

Tantra in which mentioned Title with reference P 201 Vaisvanarasamhita P 448 Väjasaneyasamhitä P 22. T 61, 410, 4, 555, 651. Vamakeśvaratantra SU 36, 80 P 47, SU 60, 63, 165 Varadatantra S 10 Varation T12, 13, 28, 32, 41, \$4,6, 22, 27. SU Varahitantra 124. SR 32 PV Kanda ii Vamabhairava P 131 Varnavilāsatantra P 49 Varnoddhāratantra T 72, 116 Vasistha P 172, T 674 Vasisthasamhitā S 18 Vasistharāmāyana P 105 Vāstuyāgapradīpikā PV Kanda i Vijayamālinī T 946 Vijayakalpa PV Kanda ii Virabhadratantra Si Vimalānandabhāsya P 16 Vedantavrtti T 5 Vidyāgama T 159 Vidyanandanibandha P 179 VIramitrodaya PV Kanda iv Virasarvasva T 72, 475, 506, 516, SU 82, 100. Viratantra SR 8, 40 P 346. S 42 Visnudharmottara T 40. S 9. SU 129 Visnuyāmala T 45, 54, 66, S 15, 19, 23, 27, 29. Viśuddheśvara SR 20 (-mahatantra) P 13. T 22, 43. S 5, 6, 13, 18, 21, 28, Viśvasāra 38. SU 58, 149, etc.

T 685

PV Kanda ii

PV Kanda iii

Viśvasāroddhāra

Viśvaśvarakalpadruma

Viśvadarśa

Title	Tantra in which mentioned with reference	
Yajurvedīya hiraņya-	•	
keśiyaśäkhā	P 152	
Yāmala	T 3, 28, 32, SU 2, 77, etc. SR 13.	
	TR 30	
Yogacudamani	PV Kanda vi	
Yogarnava	P 28	
Yogasāra	P 323	
Yogeśvarodaya	P 431. A	
Yoginihrdaya	P 144. T 49, 56. S 5, 8, 29, 30, 36, 37,	
	39, SR 46	
Yoginijalandhara	T 388	
Yoginītantra	P 8. T 7, 8, 34, 38, 41	

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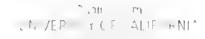
SU 126 P 495. TR 1

Abhinavaguptācārya	P 41
Amarasimha	P 11
Baudhāyana	P 111
Bhadrācārya	P 318
Bhartihari	P 46
Dattātreya	P 117
Durgasimha	P11
Gopinātha Tarkācārya	P11
Himādri	P 321
Jabala	T 10
Kṛṣṇānanda Āgamavāgiśa	P 75
Madhavacarya	T 83
Maitreya	P 18
Nārada	T 17, 45
Narahari	P 107
Nityānanda	T 6
Purnānanda	SR 15
Puspadanta	P 17
Rāghavabhatta	P 7. T 661. SR 2
Rāmakṛṣṇa Paṇḍita	P 36
Rāmalocana Vidyābhūṣaṇa	P 105



Yogini

Yonitantra



Title	Tantra in which mentioned with reference	
Rāyamukuţa	P 11, 35	
Śamkaracarya	P 12. T 515	
Smārta Bhaṭṭācārya	P 277	
Śridharasvämi	P 18	
Suśruta	P 29	
Udayabhānu	P 179	
Vidyanandasvami	P 36	
Vidyāraņyasvāmī	P 495	
Yajñapārśva	P 180	
Yogiyājñavalkya	P 28	

NOTES

1. The following abbreviations have been used —

A=Amari-samhitā, as described in Vangtya Sāhitya Parişat Patrikā, vol. 58/3-4, p. 41.

P=Prānatoṣinī, Vasumatī ed., Calcutta, 1335 BS.

PV=Pañcama-veda-sāranirṇaya as described in Vangīya Sāhitya Parisat Patrikā, Vol. 59/3-4, p. 71.

R=Rādhātantra, ed. R. Chattopadhyaya, Calcutta.

S=Sāktānanda-tarangini, ed. R. Chattopadhyaya, Calcutta.

SR=Śyāmārahasya of Pūrņānanda, ed. R.M. Chattopadhyaya.

SU=Sarvollasa-tantra, ed. R.M. Chakravarti, Comilla, 1941.

T=Tantrasāra, Vangavāsi ed., 1334 BS.

TR=Tārārahasya, ed. J. Vidyasagara, Calcutta, 1896.

IV. Tantras Mentioned in the Sanskrit Works on Bengal Vaisnavism

Some of the important Sanskrit works, relating to Bengal Vaiṣṇavism, contain copious references to Tantric works. This is particularly true in the case of the works dealing with the rites and rituals. For the present purpose, We shall collect the references to Tantras contained in the following works against which the respective abbreviations are noted.

1. Bhaktirasāmṛta-sindhu of Rūpa Gosvāmin

(Murshidabad ed., Radharaman Press)

2. Haribhakti-vilāsa of Gopāla Bhatta¹

(Ed. R. Vidyāratna, Behrampore,

West Bengal)

3. Samkşepa-bhāgavatāmṛta of Rūpa Gosvāmin

(Murshidabad ed., 1303 B.S.)

 Sat-kriyā-sāra-dīpika, ascribed to Gopāla Bhatta²

(Ed. Gaudiya Math, Calcutta,

449 Gaurābda).

5. Şat-sandarbha of Jīva Gosvāmin

(Tattva, Bhagavat, Paramātma,

Radharaman press ed.)

Śrikṛṣṇa-ed. P. G.

Gosvamin, Navadvīpa,

1332 B-S.

Bhakti—ed. S. Gosvāmin, Calcutta, Śaka 1822.

Prīti--ed. P. Gosvāmi, Noakhali).

6. Ujjvalanīlamaņi of Rūpa

Gosvāmin

(Kāvyāmālā ed., Bombay, 1913).

Google

BS (The references are to the pages of the edition used.)

HV (The references are to the pages of the edition used here).

SB (References are to pages).

SD (References are to pages).

SS (The Arabic numerals refer to pages and the Roman figures to the Sandarbhas in the order shown here).

UN

II A NIVER Y OF FORM Y The Gopāla-campū of Jīva Gosvāmin contains references to several Tantras all of which have been referred to also in his Sandarbhas. So, for the present purpose, we need not take the Gopāla-campū into consideration.

(In Devanāgarī alphabetical order)

Aśvaśirah-pańcaraira: Same as Hayaśirsa (q.v.)

Agama: HV. I. 41-42, 79, 82-83, 154-55, 267, 516-19,

548, 552, 582-83, 750, 789-90, 807-09, 811-13,

1170-71, 1178-79

III. 110-14

IV. 2-3, 8-9, 21-22

SB 393

SS IV. 76, 255, 271, 335, 565. V. 626, 634. VI.

477, 958

Kramadīpikā: HV. I. 15-16, 28, 71, 78, 353, 397-98, 405-06,

519-20, 723

IV. 5 UN 349

Gautamīya: HV. I. 83-84, 330-31, 475, 703

III. 44, 60, 164, 285

IV. 21, 30, 32-33, 67, 184-85

Gautamiya-tantra: HV. I. 58, 192, 236, 237, 432-35, 462, 913,

1146-50, 1208, 1344

II. 9-10 III. 4, 220-23 IV. 100-02

SS IV. 220, 423. V. 547, 640, 651. VI. 959, 1074

Tantra: HV I. 70, 1176-77

III. 183-84 IV. 12 SB 374 UN 61

B\$ 21, 24, 111, 170, 187

Tantra-bhagavata: SS. I. 53, 72. IV. 224, 421

Tantrāntara: SS. V, 627
Tantrikāḥ: HV. I. 92-93

Trailokyamohana-pañcarātra: HV. II. 179

Trailokya-sammohana-pañcarātra: HV. I. 60-62, 71-73, 377-78 IV. 39-

40, 46-49, 58, 60

SS. IV. 220. V. 523, 630. VI. 725

Navapraśna-pańcarātra: HV III. 151

Nārada-tantra: HV I. 85

Nārada-paficarātra: HV. I. 20-22, 32, 34, 44-45, 123-125, 151-152,

199-201, 233, 286-87, 359-63, 436, 449, 552,

790, 822, 1087-88, 1352

IV. 13, 20, 24-25, 28-29, 35-36, 41, 52-53, 54,

68-69, 175-76

BS 11, 23, 59, 107

SS II. 182, 257, 386, III. 25, 127, IV. 299, 466 V. 576, 595, 596, 628, 629, 630, 633, 640, 650

VI. 225, 246, 247

Nāradīya-tantra: SS III. 33 Nāradiya-pancarātra: HV. I. 187

III. 136

Nārāyaṇa-pañcarātra: BS 218 Nigama: HV III. 359

Paficaratra: HV. L 39, 125-26, 267, 349, 745-46, 777-78

II. 5-6

BS 36, 129, 213, 216, 217

SS III. 75, 80. V. 472, 625, VI. 417, 426

Prahlāda-paficarātra: HV. I. 907 Brhat-tantra: SS VI. 239

Brhad-gautamīya-tantra: SS IV. 305, 309, 567, 568. VI. 239, 564

Brahmayāmala: BS 79

SS V. 628

Bhagavat-tantra: Same as Tantra-bhagavata (q.v.)

Bhāgavatādi-tantra: HV II. 106 Bhārgava-tantra: SB 244 Mrtyuñjaya-tantra: SS IV. 296

Yāmala: SS IV. 463, 567, V. 650 Rudrayāmala: SD 39, 50, 108. HV I. 86

Viṣṇuyāmala: HV. I. 80-81, 126-34, 354, 1245

IV. 491 B\$ 334

SS V. 613, 640 SD 20, 107 Vaişņava-tantra: BS 333

SS III. 71. V. 494, 572, 627

Śāradātilaka: HV I. 65-70, 75-76, 189-91, 365

Śivāgama or Śaivāgama: HV IV. 23-25, 27-28, 31, 406-10

Śrīyāmala: SB 334

Sanatkumära-tantra: HV. II. 16-17

Sammohana-tantra: HV. I. 126, 136, 407, 410, 451

SB 366 SD 106

Satvata-tantra: SB 25, 190, 209

Svāyambhuva-āgama: SB 165, 219

SS IV. 272

Hayagrīva-pañcarātra: Same as Hayaśīrṣa (q.v.)

Hayaśirşa-pañcarātra: HV I. 26, 197, 454-57, 546, 910, 1209-10

III. 46-47

IV. 82, 84, 97-99, 109-11, 129-47, 150-71, 178, 183, 187-93, 196-202, 206-36, 238-41, 250-58, 260-61, 266, 273-75, 278-80, 282-84, 289-93, 295-98, 300-03, 307-10, 316-18, 321-23, 325-330, 339-43, 346-57, 359-74, 400-05, 411, 417-18, 420-23 425-34, 442-45, 452-61, 464-68, 473-

77, 480-84, 486-91

SS I. 53. II. 645. V. 567, 569, 633. VI. 246

NOTES

- 1. The identity of the author is controversial. Some think that he is one of the six Gosvāmins of Vṛndāvana, while others think that he was a different person. Yet others think that it was really a work of Sanātana Gosvāmin who associated it with the name of Gopāla Bhatta. There is an opinion that it was their joint work.
- 2. The authorship is doubtful. Even if it was written by Gopāla Bhaṭṭa, his identity with Gopāla Bhaṭṭa, one of the famous Gosvāmins of Vṛndāvana, has not yet been established conclusively.



V. List of Holy Places Mentioned in Bengal Tantra

Only the major published works have been taken into account

The following abbreviations are used:

P: Pranatosint

S: Śrītattva-cintāmaņi SR: Śyāmārahasya

ST: Sāktānanda-taranginī

T: Tantrasāra TR: Tārārahasya

	(In Devanag	arī alphabetical order)	
Akşayavata	P	Kālamādhava	P
Agastyāśrama	P	Kālīghāţa	P
Attahāsa	P	Kāverī	P, SR, TR
Ayodhyā	P	Kasi	T, P
Avanti	P	Kāśmīra	P
Amarakantaka	P	Kubjaka	P
Aśvatīrtha	P	Kurukşetra	T, P
Aryāvarta	P	Kuśāvarta	P
Ujjayinī	P	Kedāra	P
Uddīyāna	P	Kauşikī	P
Elapura	P	Ganga	T, P, SR, TR
Oghavati	p	Ganeśvara	P
Kanakhala	P	Gandaki	P
Kanyāśrama	T, P	Gayā	T, P
Kamalā	P	Godāvarī	P, SR
Karavira	P	Govardhana	P
Karatoyā	P	Gautameśvara	P
Kamatirtha	P	Candrabhāgā	P
Kamasūtra	P	Candraśekhara	T, P
Kamāţa	P	Jayanti	P
Kalamba	P	Jālandhara	P
Kāfici	P	Jvälämukhi	P
Kāmākhyā	, P	Trikoņa	P
Kālafijara	P	Tripurā	P



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TrivenI	P	Mathura	P
Trisrota	P	Madhupuri	P
Durgā	P	Mānasa	P
Dvāravati	P	Māyā	P
Nandipura	P	Māhişmatī	P
Narmadā	P, SR, TR	Mithili	P
Nalahati	P	Yamunā	P, SR
Nagatirtha	P	Yaśor	P
Nāgarasambhava	P	Ratniivali	P
Nepāla	P	Ramanaka	P
Naimişāraņya	P	Rāmagiri	P
Paficavați	P	Ramatirtha	P
Paficāpsara	P	Rāmeśvara	P
Pațala	P	Lagnikāśrama	P
Pings	P	Lankii	P
Pindarakavana	P	Viraja (Virajā)	T, P
Puşkara	P	Śukratirtha	P
Prabhāsa	P	Śona	P
Prayaga	T, P	Śrtśaila (Śrtgiri)	T,P
Brahmaśira	P	Sarayū	P
Brahmāvarta	P	Saradaurtha	P
Bhadreśvara	P	Sindhu	SR, TR
Bharatāśrama	P	Haratirtha	P
Bhāskaraksetra	T	Haridvāra	P
Bhairavaparvata	P	Hamsatirtha	P
Manipura	P	Harita	P
Manibandha	T	Hiṅgula	P
Matanga	T	Hṛṣīkeśa	P

VI. Pantheon in Bengal Tantra

The major published works have been utilised here

The following abbreviations have been used:

P: Prānatosini

PU: Purascarana-ratnakara

S: Śrītattva-cintāmaņi SR: Śyāmārahasya

ST: Śāktānanda-taranginī

T: Tantrasāra TR: Tārārahasya

Besides the deities mentioned here, there are many demigods, minor deities, etc. The different Avatāras have been mentioned in some texts. We have not stated them separately. Of Vāmana, there are the aspects of Dadhivāmana, Şaḍvāmana. The various weapons and other things, supposed to be held by different deities, e.g. Şaṃkha, Cakra, Khaḍga, Dhanus, etc., have been deified and mentioned in some texts. We do not set forth these deities here.

Some texts mention the different planets as deities, which we do not state here.

A separate list is given of those deities whose mantras are mentioned.

(In Dev	anāgarī alph	abetical order)	
Name	Work in which mentioned	Name	Work in which mentioned
Agni	PU	Indra	T, PU
Agnidurga	PU	Indrāņī	PU
Ananta	PU	Ucchişta Ganesa	T
Aniruddha	PU	Ucchista	
		Candalini	PU
Antarikşa Sarasvatī	PU	Ucchişţa	
		Mātangī	PU
Алпарита	T, PU	Ekajajā	PU
Annapūrnā Bhairavi	T	Kamalātmikā	T, P, PU
Aparājitā Vaisņavī	PU	(Kamalā)	
Aśvārtidhā	PU		
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Name	Work in which mentioned	Name	Work in which mentioned
Karņapišāci	T	Gāyatrī	P, S, PU
Kamamatangi	PU	Gorakşanatha	PU
Katyayani	T, PU	Gopāla	PU
Kāma	PU	Govinda	PU
Kāmeśvarī Bhairavī	T, PU	Gauri	T, S, PU
Kārtavīrya	PU	Graha	P. 3, FO
Kārtikeya	PU		_
Kali		(Sūrya, Candr Maṅgala, Bud	
Kan	TR, T, P, PU, ST.	Brhaspati, Suk	1161, TO
	S, SR	Sani, Rahu, K	
(Bhadrakālī,	3, 3K	Caņģikā	S
Dakşinakālī,		Candesvara	T, PU
Mahākālī, Siddhikālī		Candramauli	T, PO
Śmaśānakāli,	•		_
Guhyakāli		Cāmuņḍā Cintāmaņi	S, PU PU
Kāmakalā Kālī)		Cintămani	PU
Kanakala Kan)		Sarasvatī	PU
Ketu	PU	Caitanyabhairavl	-
Kauleśa Bhairavi	T, PU	Chinnamastă	PU
Kaumārī			ru
Kuvera	PU PU	(See Pracaṇḍa	
	_	Candikā)	T DIT
Kṛṣṇa Keśava	T, S	Jayadurgā	T, PU
	PU T C DII	Jñānasarasvatī	PU T, P
Kșetrapăla	T, S, PU	Tarā	*
Ganga Gangati	T, P, S, PU PU	Tueskana	PU, TR PU
Gaṇapati	PO	Tumburu	P
(Śakti-gaṇapati,		Tulasi	PU
Mahāgaņapatī,		Trikantakī	
Vighnagaṇapati)	TD	Trikūţā Sarasvatī	
Gaņeša (Šaktiganaša	T, P	Tripuță	T, S, PU
(Śaktigaņeśa,		Tripurabhairavī	
Lakṣmīgaṇeśa,		Tripurasundarī	T, P, S,
Vighnagaņeśa,		Tayamhaka	PU T
Ucchişţa-gaņeśa,		Tryambaka Tvaritā	PU
Kṣipra-prasāda Gaṇeśa Vakratuṇḍa)		Dadhivāmana	
Garuda Garuda	т	Damii vanigira	T, PU
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Name	Work in which	Name	Work in which
	mentioned		mentioned
Durgā	T, P, PU	Dāmodara	PU
Dhanadā	T, PU	Bhairavī	T, S, PU
Dharani	PU	(also see	
Dhumāvati	T, P, PU	Sakalasiddhid	ā and
Nārāyaņa	PU	Sampatpradā	
Nityaklinnā	PU	Bhairavis)	
Nityā	T	Mañjughoşa	T
Nityābhairavī	T, PU	Maņikarņikā	PU
Nilakantha	T, S	Madhusüdana	PU
Nilasarasvati	PU	Mahakala	
		Bhairava	T, P, S
Nṛsiṃha	T		PU, SR
Nairta	PU	(Kālī-bhartṛdeva)
Padmävati	PU	Mahālakşmī	T, S, PU
Pārijāta Sarasvatī	PU	Mahāsarasvatī	PU
Parvati	PU	Mahişa-mardinī	T, PU
Purușottama	PU	Mātangī	T, P, S, PU
Pracandacandika	T, P		
(Chinnamastā)		Mādhava	PU
Pratyangirā	PU	Maheśvari	PU
Pradyumna	PU	Mukhya	
		Vägisvari	PU
Bāṇaliṅga Śiva	P, S	Mṛtyufijaya	T
Bālagopāla	T, PU	Yama	PU
Bala	PU	Yoginī	T, S
Brāhmā	T, P, S, SR	(As companio	n
Brahma	PU	goddesses, Yo	
Brāhmā	PU	are of many k	inds,
Bhaya-vidhavamsin1		e.g. Prakata-ye	oginī,
Bhairavi	T, PU	Dakşinī, etc.)	
Bhārati	PU	Rājamātangi	PU
Bhuvanéśvari		Rāhu	PU
Bhairavī	T, PU	Rudra	T, S, PU
Bhairava	T, S	Rudrabhairavī	T, PU
(Many kinds, e.g.		Rudravāgīšvarī	PU
Asitānga, Rudra,		Lakşmî	T, S, PU

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Name	Work in which mentioned	Name	Work in which mentioned
Canda, Krodha,	natholica	Śitalā	PU
Unmatta-bhairava.		Śūlapāņi	T, PU
etc.)		Śesa	PU
Lakşmi		Ścsikā	PU
Vāsudeva	T, PU	Śrikara	PU
Laghuśyāmā	PU	Śridhara	PU
Vagalāmukhī	T, P, PU	Śrīrāma	T
Vajraprastāriņī	T, PU	Śribari	PU
Vatuka	T, S, PU	Şaţkūţā Bhairavī	
Vanadurgā .	PU	Sakalasiddhida	-,
Varāha	T	Bhairavi	T, PU
Varuna	PU	Sadaśiva	PU
Vasyamātangī	PU	Sampatpradā	
Vahnivāsinī	PU	Bhairavī	T, PU
Vāgišvarī	T, S, PU	Sarasvatī	PU
Vāgmati	PU	Sāmrājya-lakşmī	
Vāgvādinī	PU	Sita	PU
Vāsudeva	T	Sürya	T. S
Vāyu	PU	Svapnavārāhi	PU
Vārāhī	PU	Hanilmat	T, PU
Viśalakşmi	T	Hayagriva	T. PU
Vișnu	T, P, S	Haridraganeśa	T, PU
-1,-	PU, SR, T		T. PU
Visnu Vāgīšvarī	PU	Hamsa Vāgišvari	
Vaisņavī	PU	Heramba	T
Vyāsa	PU	Hṛṣikeśa	PU
Śarabha	PU	• •	-
Śiva	SR, T, P, S, PU		
679	-,		

(Tryambaka, Pārvatīšvara, Mṛtyuñjaya Mahāmṛtyuñjaya, Pasupati, Ardhanārīšvara, Aghora, Nīlakaṇṭha, Isāna)



List of Deities whose Mantras are Mentioned in Bengal Tantra

(The names of deities are in Devanāgarī alphabetical order)

Name	Work in which mentioned	Name	Work in which mentioned
Annapūrņā	T	Pārijāta Sarasvat	T
Annapūrņābhairavī	T	Pracandacandika	T
Indra	T	Balagopala	T
Ucchistaganesa	T	Bhadrakālī	T
Ucchiştacandalinī	T	Bhayavidhvamsi	ni
Kamapiśācī	T	Bhairavi	T
Kātyāyanī	T	Bhuvaneśvarī	T
Kāmeśvari	T, S	Bhuvaneśvari	
Kṛṣṇa	T	Bhairavī	T
Kauleśa Bhairavi	T	Bhairavī	T
Ganesa	T	Mañjughoșa	T
Garuda	T	Mahākāla	
		Bhairava	T, SR
Guhyakālī	T	Mahālakşmī	T
Gauri	T	Mahişamardinī	T
Candesvara	T	Mātaṅgī	T
Candramauli	T	Mṛtyufijaya	T
Jayadurgā	T	Yogin	S
Tara	T, TR	Rudrabhairavi	T
Tripuță	T	Lakşmi	T
Tripurabhairavī	T	Lakşmi Vāsudev	а Т
Tripurasundari	T, S	Vagalāmukhī	T
Tryambaka	T	Vajraprastārīņī	T
Dakşiņāmūrtī	T	Vatuka	T
Dadhivāmana	T	Varāha	T
Durgā	T	Vägiśvari	T
Dhanadā	T	Vāsudeva	T
Dhūmāvatī	T	Viśālākṣī	T
Nityā	T	Vișņu	T
Nityābhairavī	T	Śiva	P
Nilakantha	T	Śūlinī	T
Nṛsiṃha	T	Śmaśānakāli	T

Śyāmā	T, SR	Stirya	T
Śrīrāma	T	Hanûmat	T
Śrīvidy a	T, S	Hayagriva	T
Şaţkütā Bhairavī	T	Haridraganeśa	T
Sakala-siddhida		•	
Bhairavi	T	Harihara	T
Sampatpradā			
Bhairavī	T	Heramba	T

VII. List of Mudräs, Yantras and Mandalas Mentioned in Bengal Tantra

The major published works have been taken into account

The following abbreviations are used:

P: Pranatosini

S: Śritattva-cintāmani

T: Tantrasāra TR: Tārārahasya SR: Śyāmārahasya

ST: Saktananda-tarangini

(In Devanagari alphabetical order) The principal mudras only are listed here

	The principal muar	as only are usu	eu nere
Ańkuśa	T	Nāda	S
Afijali	T	Padma	T
Apāna	S	Prāņa	S
Abhaya	T, SR	Prārthanā	T, S
Avagunthana	T, S, SR	Bali	S
Avāhanī	T, S, ST, SR	Bindu	S
Udāna	S	Bīja	S
Kumbha	T, SR	Bhūtiņī	T
Kauliki	T	Mahāńkuśā	S
Khadga	T, SR, TR	Mahāmudrā	T
Khecari	T, S	Muṇḍā	T, SR
Gajatuņģā	S	Muşala	T
Gada	T	Mṛga	TR
Galini	T, S	Yoga	S
Cakra	T, S	Yoni	T, S, ST, SR, TR
Carma	T	Lakşmī	T
Jfiana	T	Lelihā	T, \$, \$R
Tattvamudrā	T, S, SR, TR	Vara	T, SR
Trikhandā	T,S	Vismaya	S
Durgā	T	Vina	T
Dhenu	T, SR, TR	Vyāna	S
		Śamkha	T, S, SR, TR
		4	_

Šrīvatsa





Sarva		Sarva	
vidrāvaņī	S	samkşobhanī	S
•		Sarvonmādinī	S
Sambodhini	T, P, SR	Samhāra	T, TR
Sakalikarani	T, S, S, T	Sundari	S
Sannidhāpanī	T ,S, ST, SR	Sthāpanī	T, S, ST, SR
Samāna	S	-	
Sammukhī-			
karaņī	T, S, ST, SR		
Sarvavasyakarani	S		

MAŅŅALAS

The prominent mandalas, mentioned in the Tantrasāra, are Navanābha, Sarvatobhadra and Svalpa-sarvatobhadra. The Śrītattva-cintāmaņi mentions Guru-mandala.



YANTRAS

The Yantra's can be broadly divided into two classes— $P\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ -yantra and $Dh\bar{a}rana$ -yantra. As will be seen, some names are common in both the classes.

	Pūjā-yantras			
Annapürņā				
Bhairavi	T	Ruđrabhairavi	T	
Ganeśa	T	Lakşmi	T	
Guhyakālī	T	Vagalāmukhī	T	
Tara	T	Vajraprastāriņī	T	
Tāriņī	T	Vatuka	T	
Tripuță	T	Vägiśvari	T	
Tvaritā	T	Viśalaksi	T	
Durgā	T	Śmaśānakālī	T	
Dhanadă	T	Śyāmā	T	
Pracandacandikā	T	Śrīvidyā	T, S	
Bhuvaneśvari	T	Şaţktiţa Bhairavī	T	
Mātaṅgī	T	Hanümat	T	
		Dhārana-yantras		
Kali	T	Mṛtyunjaya	T	
Tara	T	Lakşmi	T	
Tvaritā	T	Śiva	T	
Nṛṣiṃha	T	Śrīrāma	T	
Bhuvaneśvari	T	Śrīvidy ā	T	

T

Bhairavī

VIII. List of Kavacas Mentioned in Bengal Tantra

Abbreviations:

P: Prāņatoşiņi

S : Śritattva-cintāmaņi SR : Śyāmārahasya T : Tantrasāra

(In Devanagari alphabetical order)

Name	Work in which mentioned	Name	Work in which mentioned
Ak şaya	P	Pracandacandikā	T
Annapürnä	T	Brahma	P
Kārtikeya	T	Bhuvaneśvari	T
Kundalinī	P	BhairavI	T
Ganga	T	Mahāvidyā	P
Gäyatri	T	Mahisamardini	T, SR
Guru	P	Mātangi	T
Tārā	T	Yoni	P
Tripuță	T	Lakşmi	T
Tripurasundari	T, S	Vamsalābhākhyā	T
Trailokya-	Ť	Śiva	P
maṅgalā	T	Śmaśānakāl ī	T, P
Dakşinakālikā	SR	Śyāmā	T, SR
Durgā	T	Śrīvidy a	T
Dhanadā	T	Sarasvati	T
Nayika	T	Stirya	T
Nṛsiṃha	T	Haridragaņeśa	T





IX. List of Hymns and Protective Mantras Mentioned in Bengal Tantra

Abbreviations:

P: Pranatosini

S: Śritattva-cintāmaņi SR : Śyāmārahasya ST : Śāktānanda-taraṅgiņī

T: Tantrasāra

(In Devanāgarī alphabetical order)

Name	Work in which mentioned	Name	Work in which mentioned
Ananda	P	Bhairavī	T
Kińkiņī	T	Manasā	T
Kundalinī	P	Mahākālī	T
Kumāri	P	Mahavidya	P
Ganeśa	T	Mahişamardinī	T, SR
Guru	P, ST	Mātaṅgī	T
Gopāla	T	Yoni	P
Tara	T	Lakşmî	T
Tulasi	P	Vagalāmukhī	T
Tripuță	T	Vatuka	T
Tripurasundari	T, S	Vișņu	T
Dakşiņ ā	T	Śānti	P
Durgā	T	Śiva	T, P
Dhanadā	T	Śyāmā	T, SR
-Dhumavati	T	Śrtkṛṣṇa	T
Nāyikā	T	Śrīrāma	T
Nṛsiṃha	T	Śrīvidyā	T
Pracandacandika	T	Şaşthi	T
Balarāma	T	Sarasvatī	T
Bāṇalinga	P	Svähä	T
Brahma	P	Hanūmat	T

X. Profiles of Tantric Devotees

Bengal produced not only an abundance of Tantras, both Buddhist and Hindu, but also gave birth to a galaxy of Tantric devotees. Some of them were of a very high order, and have carved out a permanent niché in the shrine of human memory. Of them again, some were scholar-devotees like Pūrnānanda, Sarvānanda, etc. They reached a spiritual height not comprehensible to ordinary people, inspired a band of illustrious disciples, and wrote treatises. Others were immersed in the nectar of thought of the Mother Goddess in whose honour they composed and sang songs. Even under adverse circumstances, they went on singing with sang-froid and unparalleled abandon. Yet others devoted a lifetime to silent meditation.

Unfortunately, we have very little information about them beyond stories about their mystic and superhuman powers which commanded the naive and complacent attention of the devoted souls. The Bengalis loved Caritametas, containing more of fiction and fancy than of sober facts, rather than serious or faithful Caritas. Here we shall try to give short life-sketches of a very few eminent Sādhakas leaving aside all fanciful accounts of them. No account of Bengal Tantra can be complete without information about these devotees of immortal fame, whose names have become household words in Bengal, and whose teachings and songs have become a current coin the Bengali society.

Rāmprasād¹

Rāmprasād (C. 1720-81. Date of birth according to others 1723 or 1718. Death 1775 according to some, 1782 according to others). A poet, Śākta devotee and a singer, all rolled into one, Rāmprasād was born to Rāmrām Sen at viliage Kamarhati in Hālisahar in the district of 24 Parganās, West Bengal. At first a clerk under a wealthy person (Gokul Ghosal, Dewan of Bhukailash, according to some or Durgacharan Mitra, accorting to others), he subsequently enjoyed the patronage of a few other landlords including Krishnacandra Rāy. Krishnachandra offered him a job. Rāmprasād having declined, he gave him 100 bighas of rent-free land and conferred on him the title Kavirafijana. In recognition of this honour, Rāmprasād composed, 1293 B.S./ a poetical work on Vidyāsundar, and named it Kavirafijana. Nawab Siraj-u-ddaula is said to have been very much delighted by his Śyāmā-samgūta.



The time of Rāmprasād was full of trouble. He lived through the battle of Plassey (1757 A.D.) and the Great Bengal Famine of 1770. The resulting distress is echoed in some of his poems.

Quite early in age he is said to have acquired proficiency in Sanskrit, Persian and Bengali. In his teens, he could compose poems of a high class. Gradually he was attracted to Tantra and the Tantric mode of worship. He is said to have practised Sādhana on a pañcamuṇḍī Āsana. His spiritual preceptor was Śrīnātha, according to some, Kṛpānātha according to others. His two sons were Ramdualal and Rammohan.

He was reputed as a Sakti-devotee of high order, and composed many songs on the deity of his devotion. His songs, imbued with Tantric ideas, became a genre. He used to say na vidyā saṃgūtāt parā; no other ore is higher than music. In Bengal, prasādī sur (tune or melody of Ramprasad's songs) has become proverbial. He is, indeed, the pioneer in the introduction of a new mode of Śākta songs. 'Kālīkīrtan' is a small work by him. Of more than 300 songs, passing by his name, probably some are not genuine. Most of his songs are marked by passion or effusion relating to Kālībhakti. A few of his songs relate to the Āgamanī (arrival of Umā) and Vijāyā (departure after Durgāpūjā. He is known to have composed also a Kṛṣṇakirtana.

Kamalākānta Bhattācārya² (C. 1772-1821)

Born at village Cānnā in Burdwan district of West Bengal, he was a native of the village Ambikā-Kālnā. His father and mother are said to have been named Maheśvara and Mahāmāyā.

He studied Sanskrit in the traditional way, and became a teacher. At first, an initiated Vaiṣṇava, he later became a dedicated devotee of Kālī having received dikṣā at Tārāpīṭha in Birbhum district of West Bengal. He is said to have achieved siddhi on a Pañcamuṇḍī Āsana. With a background of training in vocal music, he wrote many songs which are known as Śyāmāsaṃgīta. Besides these, he worte also Samara-saṃgīta, Śivasaṃgīta, Kṛṣṇapadāvalī, Daśamahāvidyā-saṃgīta.

Hearing of his spiritual attainment, Tejchand (1764-1832), the then Rājā of Burdwan was attracted to him, appointed him his court-Pandit, built for him a residential house at village Koṭālhāṭ near the town of Burdwan, and granted him an allowance. Here he spent the rest of his life, and was highly respected by the Rāj family.



He composed songs not as a pastime, but as part of his Sādhanā. Written in Tappā style, his Śyāmāsaṅgīta was not looked upon as pedestrian, but also found respectful access into the soirées.

A work by him is entitled Sādhanarañjana.

Rāmakrishna³

Nothing can be more sacrilegious than the idea expressed in some quarters that Rāmakishna (1836-86) was an unlettered village priest masquerading as a Sadhu.

Born at village Kāmārpukur in the district of Hughly (West Bengal), in 1836 (18th February), he was named Gadādhara. Though of indigent circumstances, his parents, Kṣudirām Caṭṭopādhyāya and Candramaṇi, were very pious.

In his very boyhood, Gadādhara had a spiritual bent of mind, and liked the company of learned men and divines. For quite sometime he studied Sanskrit Sāstras in the traditional way.

The reputation of the piety and devotion of the young Gadādhara attracted the attention of Rāṇī Rashmani who was a pious and prosperous lady. She engaged him as priest at the newly built Kālī temple of Dakṣineswar, a northen suburb of Calcutta, on the Ganges. It was here that the spiritual eye of the priest opened. In the lifeless image, he perceived the pulsation of a living goddess.

A remarkable fact of his life is that, though born and bred in a conservative Brahmin family in the early 19th century, he was absolutely free from bigotry. He tasted the sweet fruits of all the major religions, viz. Islam, Christianity, Sikhism, Buddhism, etc., and openly declared that there were as many ways as there are religious doctrines.

His simple life, precepts of epigrammatic brevity yet pregnant with noble thoughts and sincerity, and, above all, catholicity of heart soon attracted many disciples.

Vivekānanda,⁴ an intellectual of high order and having liberal education, was at first sceptic about the existence of God, and had scant regard for the Daksineswar priest. But, the magic wand of Rāmakrishna's spiritual genius soon converted him, and enlisted him as his foremost disciple. Himself great, this saint came to be glorified thousandfold through Vivekānanda.

It was, indeed, a misfortune for the people of Bengal that this great man (Ramkrishna) fell a victim to the fatal malady of cancer, and breathed his last at the comparatively early age of 50.



Vivekānanda⁵ (1863-1902)

He was one of those men who never die, though their physical frame perishes.

Born as Narendranath Dalla, in 1863 (Jan. 12), to Visvanath Datta of Simulia in Calcutta and Bhuvanesvari, he imbibed a liberal outlook on life from his father and religious bent of mind from his mother.

As a young man, he reluctantly paid a visit to Ramkrishna through the insistence of his friends. This was a turning point of his life.

The early death of his father plunged the family into penury. One day, unable to bear the pinch of poverty, he asked Thäkur Ramkrishna to intercede, on his behalf, to Mother goddess for removing his dire poverty. Thäkur asked him to go to the nearby temple, and plead his own case. He did go to the Goddess, but he could ask for nothing material. The only things which came out of his mouth were Jñāna (knowledge) and bhakti (devotion).

After the demise of the master, he, through the munificence of people and the cooperation of his co-disciples, established (1886) a Ramkrishna Math at Baranagar.

Towards the middle of 1890 he, as a wandering mendicant, traversed many regions of India, and acquired first-hand knowledge about the country and its people. At this time, he studied many Śāstras.

In 1893 (May), he went to America to represent Hinduism in the Parliament of Religions at Chicago (September). His soul-stirring speech there dispelled many wrong notions of the western people about the outlook of the Indians.

After that he spent some more time in America and Europe lecturing, interpreting Śāstras and writing books.

A great event of this odyssey was his acquaintance with Margaret Noble, later known as Sister Nivedita who became his disciple, came to India and dedicated herself to social service. Her book, 'The Master as I saw him' throws light on the many-faceted life of Vivekānanda.

Having returned to India in 1897, Svāmījī, as he was popularly called, devoted himself, heart and soul to the moral regeneration of the people and social reform. A powerful speaker and writer, he urged the people to adhere to truth, sacrifice, acquire mental and physical strength and to shake off superstitions and redeem the country from political bondage and internal dissensions and discords caused by sectarian and communal feelings. He tried, by his speeches and writings, to remove the social blots of untouchability, child marriage, and

insisted on liberal and scientific education. Above all, he insisted on the uplift of the downtrodden, and on the service of *Jiva* as Śiva.

The foundation of the Ramkrishna Math and Mission (1897) is a monument to his organising ability and breadth of vision.

He was one of the pioneers in the use of spoken Bengali for literary purposes. He wrote in English also.

In 1899 (June) he again visited western countries, and founded some centres for teaching Vedānta.

Towards the end of 1900, he came back to India. The onslaught of diabetes and the stress and strain of a stormy career were too much for him to bear. His mortal frame gave way, and his soul left it in 1902 (July 4) at Belur Math.

Of his several works, the *Parivrājaka* (1903), *Prācya* O *Pāścātya*, *Karmayoga*, *Jñānayoga*, *Rājayoga* and *Bhakti-yoga* deserve special mention. His English works have been published in eight volumes.

Vämä Ksyäpä⁶ (1838-1911)

His full name was Vāmācaraņa Caṭṭopādhyāyā. Son of Sarvānanda Caṭṭopādhyāyā, grandson of Rāmānanda, and a native of village Āṭlā near Tārāpītḥa in Birbhum district (West Bengal), he, even as a boy showed a sort of divine frenzy. So he was described as Kṣyāpā (mad).

In his very boyhood, he renounced the householder's life, and resorted to the cemetery at Tārāpītha.

His father having died, the family faced dire distress. Driven by desperate penury, he got a job at the Kālī temple of village Muluți. But, he was so engrossed with the thought of Mother Goddess that he could not fulfil his obligations. As a result, he lost the job.

Now his only shelter was his maternal uncle's house where it was his duty to tend cattle. But, while on duty he used to be immersed in the thought of Kṛṣṇa grazing cows at Vṛndāvana. His indifference led the cows astray, which caused damage to others' crops. So, his maternal uncle drove him away.

Then he accepted the job of plucking flowers for the worship of Tara for which he was to get food. Here also he could not stick.

He was then appointed cook in the Kāchāri at Mursidabad. But, though physically working there, his mind was drawn to Mother Tārā. He was then sent back to the above temple.

He received Tantric initiation from the anchorite, Vrajavāsī Kailāsapati, who came to Tarāpītha for Sādhana. Since then he devoted





himself to Sādhana in the local cemetery. Then he formally renounced the world, and became a full-fledged Sannyāsin.

He visited Varanasi and Hardwar, but returned to the place of his Mother Goddess.

Rājā Yatındramohan of Calcutta once had him brought to the city. But, the din and bustle of the city-life was not liked by him. So, he went back.

Rāmakrishna Ray (d. 1795 A.D.; according to some, 1800)

Adopted son of the celebrated Rāṇī Bhavānī of Nāṭor (Bangladesh), he was a big landlord and earned the title of Mahārājādhirāja Pṛthvīpati Bāhādur from the then Mogul King. His fame, however, rests on his Tāntric Sādhanā.

He performed Sādhana in the Kirīţeśvarī temple on the west bank of the Bhāgīrathi, some three miles away from village Dāhāpāḍā. This temple was regarded as an Upapīṭha, because a part of the crown of Satī is said to have dropped there.

Ramakrishna is known to have practised Savasādhana on a Pañcamundī āsana (seat over five heads or skulls).

NOTES

- 1. See Bhāratkos, Mātrgāthā by Omkāmāth
- 2. See S.K. De, Bengali Literature in the Nineteenth Century; Mātrgāthā (in Bengali) by Omkārnāth.
- 3. See R. Rolland's Life of Ramakrishna, Calcutta, 1929, and Achintya Sen Gupta's *Paramapuruṣa Rāmakrishna* (in Bengali), Calcutta. There are several other biographies both in English and Bengali.
- 4. See R. Rolland, Life of Vivekānanda, Calcutta, 1931; M.L. Burke, Svāmi Vivekānanda, pt. I; Calcutta, 1983 (3rd. ed.), Svāmi Vivekānanda in the West, 1982 (2nd. ed.).
- 5. R. Rolland, The Life of Vivekānanda, etc.; There are many other biographies.
- 6. See H.C. Gangopadhyay, Śrīvāmālīlā, I, II, Calcutta, 1340, 1370 B.S.



XI. Buddhist Tantric Works of Bengal¹

This topic has been discussed in a chapter of this book. Some more facts are laid down here.

The Tibetan Tanjur testifies to the fact that the following Bengali scholars were Buddhist, and composed Tantras.

Candragomin

It is not definitely known whether or not he was identical with the grammarian or the logician of this name.

Author of the following

works on Abhicāra:
Abicāra-karma,
Camūdhavmsopāya,
Bhaya-trānopāya, Vighnanirāsaka-pramathanopāya. Some
mystic hymns in honour of Tārā,
Mañjusrī, etc. are also attributed to
him. A few magical works relating
chiefly to medicine are also believed to have been penned by
him; e.g. Jvara-rakṣā-vidhi,
Kuṣṭhacikitsopāya.

Danasila

Described as a native of 'Bhagala' in Eastern India, and as belonging to Jagaddala Vihāra in the East.

Sixty works are attributed to him. He appears to have written also a Pustakapāṭhopāya.

Jnanaśri

Kambala or Kambalapāda

Ten Vajrayāna works. From his works, he appears to be a Bengali. Eight works are attributed to him. These are related mainly to Heruka (or Cakrasamvara) sādhana. In Proto-Bengali there is a collection of Dohās, Collet Kambala-gitika. Of these Dohas, one



(No.8) occurs in the *caryācarya*, the earliest known Bengali work of c. 1000 A.D.

Kumāracandra

Described as an Avadhūta of Vikramapuri Vihāra of Bengal.

Stated to have written three Tantric Panjikās or commentaries.

Śantideva

Author of three Vajrayana works.

Perhaps different from Santideva, author of the Bodhicaryāvatāra and Sikṣasamuccaya. Stated to be a resident of Zahor which, according to H. P. Sastri, was identical with Sābhār in the district of Dacca, Bangladesh.

Ţankadāsa or Dangadāsa

Commentary, called Suvisadasamputa, on Helvajra-tantra

Described as Vrddha
Kāyastha and a contemporary
of Dharmapāla, ruler of Bengal.
There is no certain evidence of
his birth in Bengal.

Vibhuticandra

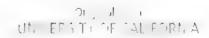
Stated to have authored twenty-three works.

Stated to belong to a Vihara of Eastern India. It is not clear whether or not he was a Bengali.

NOTE

1. See S.K.De, Buddhist Tantric Literature of Bengal, New Indian Anthropology, April 1938.





Glossary of Select Technical Terms

(English alphabetical order)

ABHICARA

Magic spell or rite designed to cause harm to others, e.g. killing an enemy.

ABHIŞEKA

A kind of Tantric Dikṣā (initiation). The Guru performs different kinds of it in the different stages of the spiritual life of his disciple. It is of eight kinds.

ACARA

Way of life or mode of Tantric Sādhana. Generally of seven kinds: Veda, Vaiṣṇava, Śaiva, Dakṣiṇa, Vāma, Siddhānta, Kaula. These are broadly divided into two groups, Dakṣiṇa and Vāma. Usually those, who use five Makāras, are regarded as followers of Vāmācāra. A twofold division into Aghorācāra and Yogācāra is found in some works.

Vide Mahānirvāņa (4/36-37), Kaulamārga-rahasya (p.11), Prānatosiņī (7/4, p. 532), Mātrkābheda (p. 6).

ADHVA ŠODHANA

Method of purifying the body consisting of six adhvas, viz. varna, pada, mantra, kalā, tattva and bhuvana.

AGHORA

A form of Siva, which is dark and of a fierce nature.

ANGANYĀSA

Feeling the existence of God in different limbs.

AJAPĀ.

The mantra called Hamsa. Spontaneous meditation taking place within the body.

AJNA

Name of a Cakra supposed to exist at the joint of the eyebrows. It is like a lotus with two petals.

AKULA

Siva aspect of Sakti.

ALI

Spirituous liquor used in Tantric worship.

ĀLĪDHA

A posture of legs. The right leg is stretched out and the left one is slightly bent.





AMNAYA

Five or six regions where Tantric culture exists.

ANAHATA

A Cakra supposed to be in the region of the heart. It is like a deep red lotus of twelve petals.

ANTARY AGA

Mental worship in which the five *Tattvas* are conceived as abstract and not tangible things.

ANUKALPA

Substitute of something; e.g. garlic in place of meat, coconut-water instead of wine.

ASANA

Posture necessary for the facility of the circulation of energies. It ensures physical comfort and psychic protection.

ASTASIDDHI

See Siddhi.

ASTAPĀŚA

See Pāśa.

AŚVAKRĀNTĀ

According to Saktimangala-tantra, name of the part of India from the Vindhya Hill to the great ocean. It is one of the three regions into which India is divided in certain Tantras.

AVARAŅA-CAKRA

Same as Navacakra (q.v.).

AVADHŪTA

A Tantric devotee of a very high order. He is an object of respect of all, free from Saṃskāras and possessed of self-knowledge. Avadhūtas are of two kinds—grhī (householder), and Saṃnyāsī (ascetic). An Avadhūta of the highest order is called Kulāvadhūta who is possessed of divyabhāva. Vide Kulārṇava (17), Prāṇatoṣiṇī (7/4, p. 325), Mahānirvāṇa Tantra (7/27-83).

AVARAŅA-DEVATĀ

Goddesses also known as Yogīnīs presiding over the nine cakras.

BANALINGA

A kind of Siva-phallus. According to Tantra, it is located in a triangle within Anāhata Cakra (q.v.).

BHAIRAVĪ-CAKRA

A Cakra ritual in which Pañcamakāras are resorted to, and male and female devotees participate.

See Mahānirvāna (8/54-206), Kaulāvali-nirņaya (7), Kulārņava (8).

BHÜPURA

A quadrangle with four doors and a triangle within.

BHUTAPASARANA

Warding off ghosts with the help of mantras. Scattering white mustard at the time of sacrifice is a part of the rite. Vide Tantrasāra (Kṛṣṇānanda), p. 616; Śāradātilaka, 4/10—Rāghava's comm., Puraścaryārnava, III, p. 154.

BHUTA-SUDDHI

A rite for purifying the five elements of the body.

See Tantrasāra (Kṛṣṇānanda), pp. 85, 87; Prāṇatoṣiṇi, 3/5, p. 202.

BŪA

A mystical letter forming an essential part of the mantra of a deity, e.g. Ḥriṃ. Different bījas have different designations, e.g. Kāma, Māyā, Lakṣmī, Kālī, etc. In it the deity is revealed in a subtle form.

BRAHMADVĀRA

The passage through which Kundalini (q.v.) is supposed to move.

BRAHMANĀDĪ

Same as Suşumnā (q.v.).

BINDU

- (i) Condensed form of Nāda (q.v.). In Śaiva philosophy, an evolute of Nāda (q.v.), produced by the Kriyāśakti of Śiva. According to the Śāradātilaka i, 7ff, Bindu, characterising Parāśakti, is divided into three parts, Bindu (Śiva-oriented), Bīja (Śakti-oriented) and Nāda (a combination of both). Bindu has three forms, Prakāśa (static), Vimarśa (dynamic) and Prakāśa-Vimarśa (combination of both). It is the cause of the origin of letters and elements.
- (ii) Dot. One dot represents Siva. A double dot (Visarga) represents Sakti. According to Sāradātilaka (ii.6), the former is a symbol of solar power and the latter of lunar.
- (iii) Male organ.
- (iv) One among Daśa Mahavidyās (q.v.) in Kashmir Śaivism—vide Śāradātilaka, 1/7 onward, 2/6, 7/9; Tantrāloka, 1/216.

BRAHMAPURA

Human body.

BRAHMARANDHRA

Supposed to be at the centre of the head. Through it the vital breath or life is believed to exit at death.

CAKRA

(a) Mystical nerve-cycle or nerve-plexus; the human body is stated to contain the following Cakras:

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- (i) Mūlādhāra
- (ii) Svādhisthāna
- (iii) Manipūra
- (iv) Anāhata
- (v) Viśuddha
- (vi) Ajña
- (b) Designation of an assembly of Tantric Sadhakas for certain rites, e.g. Bhairavi-cakra
- (c) Endless rotation of Śakti.
- (d) Mystic diagram or Yantra, as Trikonacakra, Astakona cakra.

CAKRA-BHEDA

Literally, penetration of Cakras. Manifestation or activation which is necessary for keeping the body fit and for the attainment of Siddhis. Name of a stage of Tantric Sadhana.

CANDRANĀDĪ

Name of Ida (q.v.).

CARAMĀLĀ

A rosary made of rudrākṣa. (fruits of Elaeocorpus ganitrus Roxb.), conch-shells or some other thing meant for the recitation (japa) of mantras.

CATUŞKUTĀ

A particular arrangement of letters in connexion with the worship of Śrividyā.

CĪNĀCĀRA, CĪNAKRAMA

A form of Kaulācāra. A follower of it follows Tārākrama and Chinnamastākrama. That aspirant is eligible for it, who is free from the sense of duality and sin, has given up caste-distinction, is calm and detached. Vide Tārātantra, p. 20; Śaktisamgama (Sundarī, 1/188 onward), Puraścaryārnava, I, p. 20.

CITRIŅĪ

A Nāḍī (q.v.) supposed to be within the body, also called Brahmanāḍī. It is like a lotus fibre. Generally identified with Suṣumṇā (q.v.). It is also stated that Suṣumṇā is constituted of the three Nāḍīs; viz. Citriṇī Vajrā and Brahma possessed respectively of the qualities of Sattva, Rajas and Tamas. Vide Prānatosinī, 1/4, p. 32.

DĀKINĪ

Designation of various goddesses. Dākinī occupies-a special position in Buddhist Tantra. At some places, She is a companion of Pārvatī and is connected with the manifestation of the goddess as

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Chinnamastā. Regarded as a particular form of *Parā* or Supreme *Sakti*. Resorts to *Mūlādhāra* (q.v.) She is supposed to impart spiritual knowledge to the devotee. Vide *Prāṇatoṣiṇi* (5/6, pp. 378-79), *Tantrasāra* (Kṛṣṇānanda), p. 338; Ṣaṭcakra-nirūpaṇa (8).

DAKŞINĀCĀRA

Worship of Sakti according to the right-hand ritual. Some explain it as the way prescribed in Veda, Smrti and Purăna. It is a way of spiritual attainment without the use of *Pańcamakāra* and extreme forms of rituals.

DAŚA MAHĀVIDYĀ

The following ten female deities are called *Mahāvidyā*: Kālī, Tārā, Şoḍaśī, Bhuvaneśvarī, Bhairavī, Chinnamastā, Dhūmavatī, Vagalā, Mātaṅgī, Kamalā. See *Prāṇatoṣiṇī*, 5/ p. 374. The names of *Mahāvidyās* differ in different Tantras.

DHARANA-YANTRA

The Yantra (q.v.) that is generally worn as a talisman or amulet for ensuring well-being. Such a Yantra, written on the leaf of a tree, is dedicated to a deity.

DHĀRANĪ

Mystic protective spells.

DHYĀNA

Meditation on a deity. Different deities are to be meditated upon in different forms. It is the basic element in Sādhana.

DĪKṢĀ

Initiation to Tantric Sadhana. According to Viśvasaratantra, it is of four types—Kriyavati, Kalavati, Varņamayi and Vedhamayi. According to Rudrayamala, it is of three types—Āṇavi, Śakti, Śambhavi. According to the Kularṇava (XIV) it is of seven kinds—Kriya, Varṇa, Kala, Sparśa, Vak, Drk, Manasa.

DIVYACAKRA

A Cakra ritual meant for those who have achieved considerable spiritual progress. In it, Pañcamakāras are used.

DIVYAUGHA

A kind of succession of Gurus. Vide Śyāmārahasya (3).

GAJAKRĀNTĀ

Same as Aśvakrānta (q.v.).

GĀYATRĪ

Mantra in honour of a deity recognised in Tantra; e.g. Kālikāyai vidmahe, Śmaśānavāsinyai dhīmahi.





GAUDA SAMPRADĀYA

A sect of the Vāmācārī Tāntrikas of eastern India. The devotees of this sect believe only in rituals involving Pañcamakāras. According to them, the deity, preceptor and mantra are identical, and are the manifestations of Mahādevī. Vide Purascaryārṇava, 9, p. 866; Śaktisamgama, Sundarī, 3/15-18.

GURU

Preceptor who initiates a person to Tantric sādhana, is regarded as Śiva. Gurus are of four kinds, viz. Sākṣātguru (direct preceptor), Paramaguru (Guru of Guru), Parāpara Guru (third Guru in ascending order), Parameṣṭhi-guru (fourth Guru in ascending order). See Tantrasāra (Kṛṣṇānanda), pp. 2, 3; Prāṇatoṣiṇī (2/2, 6/4), Mahā-nirvāṇa (6/98), Rudrayāmala (Uttara 2), Kulārṇava (11-14, 17), Tantrarāja (1), Gandharvatantra (26), Śāradātilaka (2 and Rāghava's comm. on 2/143-44); Prapañcasāra (36/50), Kāmākhyā-tantra (4), Kaulāvalī-nirṇaya (10), Parasurāma-kalpasūtra (10/74,75), etc.

HĀDIVIDYĀ, HĀDIMATA

A Tantric school so called after its symbol HA representing Siva. It was influential in Kerala and Kashmir.

Vidyā (jūāna, mantra or devatā arising from Kāmarāja Bija, vide Śaktisaṃgama (Tārā, 58/81).

HĀKINĪ

Presiding deity of $\overline{A}j\bar{n}\bar{a}$ -cakra (q.v.). She is conceived as having six-faces and white colour.

HAMSA

Same as Ajapā (q.v.). Regarded as parama mantra. It is of two kinds—Vyakta (manifest) and gupta (hidden). So called from Ham (inhalation) and Sah (exhalation). Ham is the symbol of Bindu (male principle) and Sah of Visarga (female principle).

HATHAYOGA

A kind of forced yoga or abstract meditation performed with great self-torture such as standing on one leg, holding up the arms, inhaling smoke with the inverted head, etc. In it, the mind is forced to withdraw from external objects.

According to the Yogasikhopanisat (i.133), Hatha means the unity of the Sun (Ha) and the moon (Tha).

ΙDĀ

One of the three principal arteries, supposed to be on the left side of the spinal cord. One of the main channels of the vital spirit, also called *Candranāḍī*. Conceived to be of white colour and representing the *amṛta* aspect of Śakti.

JAPA

Repeated mental recital of the specified Bija (q.v.) with the sense that Guru, Devatā and Mantra are identical. For details about Japa, see Purascaryārṇava (6, p. 541), Kulārṇava (15, 17) Śaktisaṃgama (Tārā 46/2-3), Gandharvatantra (18/3-4, 28/9), Rudrayāmala (Uttara 26), Śāradātilaka (4/55; 56 - Rāghava's comm).

JĪVANMUKTI

Liberation in life, attaining which one acquires the knowledge of self, dispels the darkness of false knowledge. Also used to denote immortality that can be achieved by transmuting the mortal body by chemical processes into a divine one.

KADIMATA

A principal Tantric school mentioned in Śaktisamgama, Tarā, LVIII. 81-82. This school has KA as the symbol (3).

KADIVIDYA

Knowledge of a special kind. Named after the initial letter (KA) of Vāgbhava-bīja. Vide Śāradātilaka (1/1 - comm.).

KAHĀDIMATA

A Tantric school, mentioned in Saktisamgama, Tarakhanda, LVIII. 81-82. Also called Tarinimata, Ibid. Kali, VI. 125.

KĀKINĪ

Presiding deity of Anāhata Cakra (see Cakra). She is conceived as three-eyed, yellow-coloured and dwelling in a 12-petalled red lotus, Vide Saṭcakra-nirūpaṇa, 24.

KALĀ

Evolute of varuna. 38 Kalās are supposed to emanate from letters.

KALACAKRA

A nerve-cycle situated above the Viśuddhacakra (q.v.).

KALĪMATA

Same as Kādimata.

KĀPĀLIKA

Śaiva sect holding extreme views, following the Tantric cult of Śakti, defying Vedic authority, drinking wine from human skulls.

Some take them to belong to the Nātha sect. Vide Gorakṣa-siddhānta-saṃgraha, p.16 onward; Śaktisaṃgama, Kālī, 8/9-10.

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KALIKA

A kind of Tantric Nyasa (q.v.).

KĀLĪKULA

A Tantric sect in which Kalī is the Supreme Deity. The noted works of this school are Jayadratha-yāmala, Uttaratantra, Śaktisaṃgama (Kalīkhaṇḍa).

KARAMĀLĀ

Designation of the parts of the fingers used in counting the number of times of recitation of mantras at the time of Japa. See Purascaryārṇava (6, pp. 447-49), Tantrasāra (Kṛṣṇānanda), p. 27 onward.

KARANA

Wine. So called as it is the cause of all knowledge of *dharma*, *artha*, *kāma* and *mokṣa*. (*Prāṇatoṣiṇī*, vii.2).

KAULA, KAULIKA

One who follows Tantric Kulācāra. The adherents of the Kula path are divided into many sects, e.g. Kāpālika, Kṣapaṇaka, Digambara, etc.

KAULAMĀRGA

Sevenfold Tantric Acara or spiritual effort. Otherwise called Kulacara. Vide Kaulamarga-rahasya (p. 5) Kularnava (17), Rudrayamala (Uttara 17), Pranatoşini (7/4, p. 531), Kaula-jñananirnaya (ed. Bagchi) 14,16,21; Mahanirvana (14/184) etc.

KAVACA

Prayer with certain mystic syllables, supposed to protect the devotee as an armour protects the body. Protective spell.

KHAPUŞPA

Menstrual blood.

KHECARĪ MUDRĀ

A yogic posture helping in spiritual attainment and in overcoming disease and death.

It is necessary in the meditation on Tripurasundari. See Mudrā-nighaņţu (14-16), Haṭhayoga-pradīpikā (3/67), Gheraṇḍasaṃhitā (3/1-3).

KLEŚA

Five causes of suffering: Avidyā (false knowledge), Asmitā (egotism), Rāga (attachment), Dveṣa (hatred), and Abhiniveśa (adherence).

KOŞA

Sheath. The human body is supposed to consist of five sheaths which

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- (i) Annamaya
- (ii) Prāṇamaya
- (iii) Manomaya
- (iv) Vijñānamaya
- (v) Anandamaya.

KULA

- (i) Family and the mode of worship handed down by the tradition of the family. Spiritual lineage.
- (ii) Täntric rites obtaining in a particular region with reference to a particular deity.
- (iii) It denotes the Śāstra which expounds the group of objects including the knower, the known and the knowledge or the worshipper and the object of worship.
- (iv) It denotes body.
- (v) It means the ādhāra-cakra.

The term is constituted by Ku (earth) and liyate (merged).

KULACARA

See Kaulamārga.

KULADRAVYA

Kulatattva, Pańcatattva or Pańcamakāra. Vide Kaulāvalīnirņaya (8).

KULA-VRKSA

The following trees, regarded as sacred for Kaulas, are so called: sleṣmātaka, karañjaka, plakṣa, vaṭa, nimba, aśvattha, kadamba, udumbara, ciñca.

KULLUKĀ

Designation of certain mystic syllables preceding mantras to be used in Śakti-pūjā.

KUMBHAKA

See Prānāyāma.

KUNDALINĪ

Dormant spiritual energy supposed to encircle the Mūlādhāra (q.v.) like a serpent. The Mahākuṇḍalinī is believed to be at the root of the universe.

LAKINÏ

Presiding deity of Manipura Cakra. See Cakra.

LATA

Same as Śakti or Dūtī, the female partner in Tāntric sādhana.



LINGA PUŞPA

The flower Raktakaravi (Red Nerium indicum) used as a substitute for sexual union.

LINGATRAYA

Threefold Siva-phallus, viz. Itara, Svayambhū and Bāṇa.

MADHYAMA

A special type of sound between Pasyanti and Vaikhari. See Sabdabrahma.

MAHĀCAKRA

One of the five Cakra rituals; the others are Rāja, Devi, Vīra and Paśu. In it, one's mother, sister, daughter, daughter-in-law and wife are to be worshipped as Pañcaśakti.

MAHĀMĀMSA

The flesh of eight creatures, viz. man, cow, horse, buffalo, boar, goat, ram and deer. See *Tantrasāra* (Kṛṣṇānanda), p. 630, Śyāmārahasya (3).

MAHAMUDRA

See Mudrā.

MAHASETU

Name of a mantra. See Setu.

MAHĀVIDYĀ

A manifestation of Śakti.

MALA

Impurities or fetters which cause suffering and lead to re-births. It is of three types— $\bar{A}nava$, $K\bar{a}rma$, $M\bar{a}yiya$.

MĀNAVAUGHA

Literally, human stream. Name of a succession of Gurus. See Śyāmārahasya (3).

MANIPURA

A Cakra supposed to exist in the navel. It is like a golden lotus of ten petals.

MAŅŅALA

- (i) A mystic diagram like Sarvatobhadra or an otherwise enclosed space used in certain rites and modes of worship.
- (ii) A gathering of devotees who collectively perform rites, and resort to the five *Makāras* and sit, along with their female partners around the leader (*nāyaka* or *adhīśvara* and his consort).



MANTRA-CAITANYA

Consciousness lying in *Mantra*. It has to be awakened by a Tantric process. Vide Pranatosini (4/1, p. 222), Purascaryarnava (6, p. 528), Gandharvatantra (29/24-25).

MANTRAYANA

Name of Tantric Buddhism.

MANIPURA

See Cakra.

MANTRI

A kind of Diksa.

MARANA

See Satkarma.

MĀTRKĀ

Divine Mothers or mystic letters. Each of the letters from A to Kş represents an aspect of Śakti. Divine Mothers are eight in number; viz. Brahmāṇī, Maheśvarī, Kaumārī, Vaiṣṇavī, Vārāhī, Aindrī, Cāmundā, Mahālaksmī.

MERU

The central bead in a rosary is so called.

MOKŞAMĀRGA

Same as Susumnā (q.v.).

MUDRA

- (i) Formed from the root mud, it literally means that which causes delight. It generally stands for particular positions of the fingers used in worship. Some mudrās are Matsya, Śamkha, etc.
- (ii) It denotes some postures of the body at the time of yoga, e.g. $A \dot{s} vin i mud r \bar{a}$.
- (iii) Designation of parched grains or fried cereals as one of the five
- (iv) Diagram used in Tantric rites.
- (v) Woman, particularly in Buddhist Tantra.
- (vi) Mahāmudrā, in Buddhist Tantra, means female organ.

MUKTA-TRIVENI

Same as Ajñā (q.v.).

MŪLĀDHĀRA

A mystic circle believed to be above the genital organ.

NABHI CAKRA

Same as Manipura (q.v.).





NADA

- (i) Sound.
- (ii) First vibration of Parā Śakti when it goes to express itself in creation.
- (iii) Manifestation of the consciousness of the Supreme Being, revealed as sound. This manifestation is conceived as sexual union of Siva-Sakti (Static and dynamic aspects, also known as *Prakāsa* and *Vimarša* of the same ultimate reality); the thrill of the pleasure of this union is known as *Nāda*. The abbreviated form of *Nāda* is called *Bindu*. Vide Śāradātilaka, 1/6 onward; Ṣatcakra-nirūpaṇa, 39 (remark of Kālīcaraṇa); *Prapañcasāra*, 1/41. See *Bindu* and *Bīja*.

NADI

Vein. The human body is supposed to contain 72,000 veins. Of these, 72 are prominent. Of them again, fourteen are important in consideration of the others. These are Ida, Pingala, Suṣumṇā, Gandhārī, Hastijihvā, Yaśasvinī, Alambusā, Kuhu, Śaṃkhinī, Sarasvatī, Vāruṇi, Pusā, Viśvodarā, Payasvinī, Among them, the most important are Idā, Pingalā, and Suṣumṇā. Vide Prāṇatoṣiṇī 1/4, pp. 32-33.

NAŢĪ

Actress or female dancer. Applied to Sakti who is supposed to dance out of delight at the performance of rituals related to Her.

NAVACAKRA

Nine cakras (actually triangles) as constituents of Śrīyantra (q.v.). Of these, five pointing upward belong to Śakti and four, pointing downward, to Śiva. According to Lakṣmīdhara on Saundaryalaharī, ix, this cakra has three parts, each symbolically connected with creation, preservation and destruction. Also called Avaranacakra.

NYĀSA

Designation of the process by which the Sādhaka fancies the different parts of body as identical with those of the body of the deity meditated upon or worshipped. There are many kinds of Nyāsa, e.g. Aṅga-nyāsa, Kara-nyāsa, Mātṛkā-nyāsa. It may also mean subtle identification with the Cakras.

PADMASANA

A posture suitable for the practice of Yoga. In it, the right foot is placed on the left thigh, and left foot on the right thigh.

PAÑCAMUNDĪ

A kind of seat suitable for Tantric sadhana. It is prepared with the severed heads of the following creatures: two Candalas, one jackal, one monkey and one snake.

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PAÑCATATTVA (or MAKĀRA)

Also called Kula-dravya or Kulatattva. It is commonly called Pañca-makāra. The five tattvas are: madya (wine), māṃsa (meat), matsya (fish), mudrā (position of fingers or particular kinds of parched grain), maithuna (sexual union).

PARA

See Śabdabrahma.

PARAMAHAMSA

One who has attained perfection in Hamsa mantra (q.v.).

PARAMAKULA

Same as Ajña (q.v.).

PARAMESTHI GURU

See Guru.

PARAPARA GURU

See Guru.

PARĀŠAKTI

- (i) Supreme Śakti.
- (ii) Female partner of the male devotee.

PĀŚA

Eight fetters causing bondage: ghṛṇā (hatred), lajjā (shame), bhaya (fear), śaṅkā (apprehension), jugupsā (aversion), kula (pedigree), sīla (conduct), jāti (birth or caste). Vide Paraśurāma-kalpasūtra, 10/70.

PAŚU

Designation of a man in whom the animal propensities are predominant. Regarded as the meanest type of human beings.

PAŚYANTĪ

A kind of sound in the region of the navel. Having little vibration, it is connected with Nadatattva.

See Śabdabrahma.

PINGALA

One of the main arteries supposed to be on the right side of the spinal cord and rising from the Mūlādhāra and terminating in the right nostril. Also called Sūryanāḍi, it symbolises the waking state, and leads one to violent action.

PĪTHA-NYĀSA

It means feeling the *Pīṭha-sthānas* in different parts of the body, as Kāmarūpa in the heart, Jālandhara on the forehead.





PĪŢĦASTHĀNA

Holy places of Sakti, generally regarded as 51 in number. Each such place is supposed to contain a limb of Sati. (See the Purāṇic legend of Dakṣayajña). Piṭhas are divided into two classes, Mahā (major) and Upa (minor). Piṭha means a seat. The place at which or the seat on which a great devotee attained Siddhi, is regarded as a holy piṭhasthāna. Of the 51 Piṭhasthānas, quite a few are in Bengal (including Bangladesh).

PRAKRTI

Designation of the woman with whom a Tantric Sadhaka performs sexual intercourse as a tattva. Female Principle of creation often identified with Sakti.

PRĀŅĀYĀMA

Breath exercise. It is threefold: Pūraka (inhalation), Recaka (exhalation) and Kumbhaka (holding the breath). An accessory of Yoga. Vide Prāṇatoṣiṇī (6/1, p. 408). Gheraṇḍa-saṃhitā (5/46) mentions eight kinds of Kumbhaka and the Haṭhayoga-pradīpikā two more.

PRATYÄHÄRA

Yogic process of withdrawing the senses from their contact with external objects.

PRATYĀLĪDHA

Reverse of $\overline{Ali}dha$ (q.v.). In it, the left leg is outstretched, and the right one is slightly bent.

PŪRAKA

See Prānāyāma.

PŪRAŚCARANA

A rite in which the Sādhaka goes through five steps, viz. japa, homa, tarpaṇa, abhiṣeka, brāhmaṇa-bhojana. In some works, five extra steps are added. Different degrees of japa, etc. are prescribed for the different types of aspirants according as they are Divya, Vîra and Paśu. There are elaborate rules for a devotee undergoing Puraścaraṇa regarding food, habits, conduct etc. Its purpose is Mantrasiddhi.

PÜRŅĀBHIŞIKTA

See Abhişeka.

RĀJAYOGA

Highest form of yoga, as laid down in Pātahjala Yogasūtra. By it the mind is merged in Brahman.





RATHAKRANTA

Name of the tract of land from the Vindhya hill to Mahācīna, including Nepal.

RECAKA

See Prāṇāyāma.

SABDABRAHMA

Brahman or Force regarded as the source of sound. This sound-producing Force, identified with Kuṇḍalinī (q.v.) is fourfold, viz. Parā (in Mūlādhāra, q.v.), Paśyantī (in navel), Vaikharī (carried by wind within the body and sounded in throat), and Madhyamā (in between Paśyantī and Vaikharī). According to Rāghavabhaṭṭa, Para is unmanifested sound, Paśyantī reveals letters, Madhyamā words and Vaikharī sentences.

SADIVIDYA

A system of knowledge, so named after the symbolic first letters of Sakti-bija.

SAHAJA

Easy and natural way of spiritual exercise. The followers of this path are called Sahajiyās. According to them, the Superme Reality is known as Sahaja. There were adherents of this doctrine among both Hindus (Vaiṣṇavas) and Buddhists.

SAHASRĀRA

A supposed multicoloured lotus of a thousand petals. It is believed to be contained in *Brahma-randhra* (q.v.).

ŚĀKTEYĪ

A kind of Dikṣā.

SAKTI

(i) Female Energy of Siva, the Supreme Being.

The universe is manifested through Sakti. The main characteristics of Sakti are Cit (consciousness), Ananda (joy), Icchā (desire), Iñāna (knowledge) and Kriyā (action).

- (ii) Female associate of a Tantric devotee. She may be Svakīyā (own wife), Parakīyā (other's wife), Sādhāraṇī (public woman, prostitute) or a low-class woman. Generally, a woman of a despised profession is regarded as Śakti par excellence. Vide Tantrasāra of Kṛṣṇānanda (p. 627), Prāṇatoṣiṇī (7/4, p. 548), Kulārṇava (7), Niruttara (14), Gandharvatantra (23/19).
- (iii) One of the six limbs of mantra.



SAKTICAKRA

The five Sakti triangles in Srīyantra (q.v.).

SAMADHI

Thus defined in Pātańjala-Yogasūtra (3/3): Tadevārthamātranirbhāsam svarūpa-sunyanaiva samadhih.

The very same thing (i.e. *Dhyāna*), when conscious only of the object, as if unconscious of itself, is *Samādhi*. It is mainly twofold—*Samprajāāta* (when there is perception of meditator as different from the object of meditation) and *Asamprajāāta* (when the above perception is absent). These two types are also called *Savikalpa* and *Nirvikalpa* respectively.

SAMARASYA

State of equilibrium of Śiva-Śakti (Male and Female Principles) corresponding to the Buddhistic conception of *Upāya* and *Prajñā*, generally conceived in sexual union the complete comprehension of which leads to the feeling of non-duality.

SAMAYĀCĀRA

A way of the followers of the Śrividyā cult.

SAMBHAVI

A kind of Dikşa.

ŞAŢCAKRA

See Cakra.

ŞAŢ CAKRABHEDA

See Cakra-bheda.

\$AVASĀDHANA

Performance of a Täntric rite with a corpse. It has been described in the book. Vide Kaulāvalinirṇaya (14), Śyāmārahasya (14), Tārābhakti-sudhārṇava (9), Puraścaryārṇava (9).

SETU

According to the Tantrasāra of Kṛṣṇānanda, oṃkāra, preceding a mantra, is called setu. Again, fourteen vowels, followed by anusvāra and nāda, are called setu in the case of Śūdras. According to the Prāṇatoṣiṇī, praṇava (i.e. oṃkāra) is called setu for Brāhmaṇas and Kṣatriyas. For Vaiśyas, phaṭ is setu. So called as it is regarded as a bridge of knowledge to cross the ocean of misery. Its higher form is called Mahāsetu.

SIDDHAUGHA

Name of a succession of Gurus. Vide Śyāmārahasya (3),





SIDDHANTACARA

One of the sevenfold $\overline{A}c\overline{a}ra$ (q.v.). Regarded as a variety of $V\overline{a}m\overline{a}c\overline{a}ra$, suitable for a devotee of the Vira (q.v.). In it there is greater stress on $Antary\overline{a}ga$ (q.v.) than on external rites. The adherents worship Viṣṇu by day, and resort to $Pa\overline{n}camak\overline{a}ra$ (q.v.). See $Purascary\overline{a}r$, ava, I, p.22; $Kaulam\overline{a}r$ garahasya, p.10.

SIDDHI

(i) Extraordinary or supernatural power acquired by a Sādhaka. The following eight are the principal Siddhis: Animā (assuming an atomic figure), Laghimā (assuming excessive lightness of body), Garimā (excessive heaviness), Mahimā (increasing one's size at will), Prāpti (obtaining everything at will), Prākāmya (having irresistible will), Isitva (superiority over others), Vasitva (keeping others under control), some substitute Kāmāvasāyitā (suppression of passion or desire) for Garimā.

ŚIVACAKRA

The four Siva-triangles in Navacakra (q.v.).

SODHĀNYĀSA

In this kind of Nyāsa (q.v.), the presence of deities is separately felt in the body. It has six varieties. Vide Tantrasāra (Kṛṣṇānanda), pp. 272, 309 onward; Tārābhakti-sudhārṇava (5, p.163), Śāradā-tilaka (7), Puraścaryārṇava (12, p.1165).

ŚRĪCAKRA

The most important diagram relating to Śrīvidyā. It symbolises the body of the goddess. Of the nine triangles or *yonis*, contained in it, five are in the name of Śakti and four in that of Śiva. The Śakti triangles point upwards and the Śiva triangles downwards.

ŚRĪKULA

A principal Tantric school.

ŚRIYANTRA

Same as Śricakra (q.v.).

STAMBHANA

Causing paralysis, obstruction. One of the six Tantric acts.

SUDDHI

Designation of meat, fish, mudrā, fruits, roots, etc., which are offered while offering wine to the goddess. Pañcamakāras are also designated as Śuddhi.

ŚUNYATA

According to Buddhists, it is the Female principle and is known as *Prajñā*. It is symbolised by the forms of different female deities. According to Buddhists, the Male principle is conceived as *Karuṇā* or *Upāya*.

SURYANADI

Same as Pingalā (q.v.).

SUŞUMNĀ

The most important artery supposed to be in the middle of the human body. It is called *Brahma-vartma* (the path of Brahman) or *Braha-manāḍi* or *Mokṣamārga*, and is supposed to extend from *mūlādhāra* to *sahasrara*.

SVADHIŞTHANA

A Cakra supposed to exist between the matadhara (q.v.) and the navel. It is like a lotus of six petals.

SVAPUŞPA

The first menstrual blood of a newly married woman.

TADANA

A process connected with *Mantra*. By it a letter of the *mantra* concerned is recited ten or hundred times. In it, the letters may be written, and sandal-water sprinkled over them.

TĀRIŅĪMATA

Same as Kahādimata (q.v.). Šaktisamgama, Kālī, vi. 125.

TARPANA

Offering libation of water to departed ancestors.

TATTVA

See Pañcatattva.

TATTVACAKRA

Most important Cakra, also called Divyacakra. It is confined only to those who have advanced far in Tantric Sadhana. In it, there is no external rite. The devotees sit together under the leadership of the principal person known as Cakreśvara, and repeat the Hamsa mantra (so'ham). Vide Mahānirvāna, 8/204 onward).

TRIPĪTHA

Collective name of Kāmarūpa, Pūrņagiri and Jālandhara Pīthas.

TRIPURACAKRA

Same as Śricakra (q.v.).

UCCĀŢANA

Expulsion. One of the six Tantric acts.





UTTARĀCĀRA

The way shown by Vedic injunction and the guru who is jivamukta.

VĀGBHAVA

- (i) A Bija (q.v.).
- (ii) Name of a triangle.

VAIKHARI

One of the four kinds of sound articulated in the throat. See Sabdabrahma.

VAJRA

- (i) Name of a nerve within Susumnā.
- (ii) A weapon, thunderbolt, usually found in the hands of Buddhist deities.

VAMACARA

Left-hand practices or doctrines, i.e. the worship of Sakti personified as Siva's wife. Some explain it as a rite in which women, who are placed on the left of men, play an important part or which is a crooked way practised secretly.

Vāma is of two kinds—Madhyama in which all the five Makāras are resorted to, and Uttama in which madya, maithuna and mudrā are used.

VAŚĪKARAŅA

Bringing others under control. One of the six Tantric acts.

VEDĀCĀRA

One of the seven kinds of Tantric \overline{Acara} (q.v.). The followers of this \overline{Acara} attach importance to the Vedic mode.

VIDVEŞAŅA

Hatred, causing bad blood. One of the six Tantric acts.

VIDY

- (i) Knowledge.
- (ii) Aspect of Śakti, as Daśa Mahāvidyā.
- (iii) Mantra.
- (iv) Female partner of a Tantric devotee.
- (v) Certain forms of Tattvas and Kalās.
- (vi) Vimarśa-śakti expressed with the idea of one-ness.
- (vii) Name of a school or sect.

VĪRA

A Tăntric devotee of the second order. His mental power is highly developed. The conduct of such a person is called *Virācāra*. Vide *Kulārṇava* (17). *Prāṇatoṣiṇī* (7/1— p.495 onward).



VĪRĀCĀRA

See Vira.

VISNUKRĀNTĀ

A region of Tantric culture, extending from the Vindhya range to Cattala (Chittagong in Bangladesh).

VIŠUDDHA

A Cakra supposed to be in the throat. Seat of Sarasvati, it is believed to be grey and like a lotus of sixteen petals.

YANTRA

Diagram, painted with minerals on something or on bare ground, at the time of worship. The worshipper imagines that the deity, being worshipped by him, for the time being resides in the diagram. Diagrams differ according to forms of the deities worshipped.

YOGINÏ

- (i) A class of goddesses, generally numbering 64, supposed to be the proliferation of the eight $M\bar{a}trk\bar{a}s$.
- (ii) Female partner of the aspirant.
- (iii) Goddesses presiding over nerve-plexuses
- (iv) A class of female ascetics imparting Tantric knowledge to the masses. It may also denote a medicine woman or a woman possessed by the goddess.

YONIMUDR A

A physical posture in which the person concerned fixes his anus on the left heel, tongue on the palate and eyes on the nose-tip. It is supposed to awaken Kundalini (q.v.).

YONIPUŞPA

Black Aparājitā flower (Clitoriaternatea) as a symbol of sexual union. Vide Paraśurāma-kalpasūtra, 10/63.

YUGANADDHA

The condition of a man and woman in union. It is often found in Buddhist Tantric art. Oneness, beyond duality, of Sunyatā-Karuṇā.

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ASS: Anandasrama Sanskrit Series

CSS: Calcutta Sanskrit Series
GOS: Gaekwad's Oriental Series
IHQ: Indian Historical Quarterly

JASB: Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal
JRAS: Journal of Royal Asiatic Society

SBH: Sacred Books of the Hindus TSS: Trivandrum Sanskrit Series

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